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The academic and professional preparation of elementary, secondary, and college teachers of English is discussed, and recommendations for strengthening the teaching profession are presented. Specific topics of discussion are (1) teacher roles and personal characteristics, (2) the recruitment, selection, certification, and assignment of English teachers, (3) illustrative language arts programs for the elementary and secondary schools, (4) the aims and activities of inservice programs for improving instruction, and (5) the nature and value of follow-up studies of English teachers on the job. (SW)

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The Education of
Teachers of English

N C T E
CURRICULUM SERIES

THE EDUCATION OF
TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

TE 000 960



Prepared by

THE COMMISSION ON THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM

- Vol. I *The English Language Arts*
- Vol. II *Language Arts for Today's Children*
- Vol. III *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*
- Vol. IV *The College Teaching of English (in preparation)*
- Vol. V *The Education of Teachers of English for American
 Schools and Colleges*

The Education of Teachers of English

FOR AMERICAN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

Prepared by

THE COMMISSION ON THE ENGLISH
CURRICULUM
of
THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS
OF ENGLISH

Edited by

ALFRED H. GROMMON

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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PREFACE

The Education of Teachers of English for American Schools and Colleges is the fifth volume of the Curriculum Series prepared for the National Council of Teachers of English by the Commission on the English Curriculum. As reported in the Preface of *The English Language Arts*, Volume I of this series, the Commission was appointed in 1945 "to study the place of the language arts in life today, to examine the needs and methods of learning for children and youth, and to prepare a series of volumes on the English curriculum based upon sound democratic principles and the most adequate research concerning how powers in the language arts can best be developed." Dora V. Smith, now Professor Emerita of the University of Minnesota, was appointed Director.

Because this volume completes the assignments for which the Commission has been solely responsible (a further Curriculum Series volume, under joint sponsorship with other organizations, is in preparation), the members of the Commission who met in Philadelphia, November, 1961, at the annual convention of the NCTE, requested the Board of Directors of the Council to terminate the Commission and also suggested that a new commission be appointed to consider current problems in the English curriculum in schools and colleges. The Board took this action at its annual meeting the next day, and a new commission has been appointed. The members of the Curriculum Commission responsible for the preparation of the volumes in the Curriculum Series are listed below.

As has been characteristic of all contributors to this series, the writers of Volume V volunteered their services and represent the elementary and secondary schools and colleges and universities. Contributors to each chapter are listed in the Table of Contents and on the first page of each chapter. On behalf of the Commission and of the Committee responsible for preparing this volume, I wish to express here our warm appreciation for their valuable work.

On behalf of the Commission, I wish to thank also the following persons who carefully examined drafts of this manuscript and made many constructive suggestions: Richard S. Alm, University of Hawaii; Jerome W. Archer, Arizona State University; Robert S. Hunting, Purdue University; Edwin H. Sauer, Chicago Teachers College; Donald R. Tuttle, U. S. Office of Education; and members of the NCTE Committee on Publications—James R. Squire, University of Illinois, chairman; Robert A. Bennett, San Diego, California, Public Schools; Muriel Crosby, Wilmington, Delaware, Public Schools; William S. Ward, University of Kentucky; Autrey Nell Wiley, Texas Woman's University; Miriam Wilt, Temple University; and Enid M. Olson, NCTE.

But I wish to thank particularly the following persons without whose talents, experience, patience, devotion to the Council, and determination to see this series completed the publication of this book would have been prolonged even further than, alas, it has already been. Foremost, of course, I wish to thank Dora V. Smith, who has shepherded each of these volumes along and has also done much of the writing and editing. As the list of writers of this volume indicates, she contributed greatly to the preparation of the chapters in Part I, "Educating Teachers of English for the Elementary School." She also made valuable suggestions for the other chapters. I wish to thank, too, Professor Mildred Dawson and Professor Ruth Strickland for all they did in preparing the chapters in Part I. I am indebted to Professor Helene Hartley for her contributions to the preparation of the chapters in Part II, "Educating Teachers of English for the Secondary School."

For his indefatigable efforts to get this book completed, all of us connected with it owe much to James R. Squire, Executive Secretary of the NCTE. We wish to express our appreciation also to Mrs. Enid Olson, Director of Publications, and to Robert F. Hogan, Assistant Executive Secretary. And for her great patience during the long time this book was in preparation and for her careful assistance in collating the variety of recommendations submitted by the many readers of the manuscript, I wish especially to thank my wife, Helen McCurdy Grommon.

ALFRED H. GROMMON
General Editor

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ABBREVIATIONS OF NAMES OF ORGANIZATIONS

AAC	Association of American Colleges
AACTE	American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
AASA	American Association of School Administrators
AASL	American Association of School Librarians
ABPC	American Book Publishers Council
ACBB	American Council for Better Broadcasts
ACE	American Council on Education
ACLS	American Council of Learned Societies
AHE	Association for Higher Education
ALA	American Library Association
CCTE	Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education
CEEB	College Entrance Examination Board
HEW	Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
MLA	Modern Language Association (of America)
NASSP	National Association of Secondary-School Principals
NCATE	National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
NCTE	National Council of Teachers of English
NCTEPS	National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards
NEA	National Education Association
TEPS	See NCTEPS
USOE	United States Office of Education

PREVIEW

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PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS**

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**THE EFFECTIVE TEACHER: SOME CRITERIA FOR SELECTION
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READER'S GUIDE

Introduction

IN PERIODS of comparative public complacency toward our schools and colleges, society usually shows little interest in how teachers are prepared. In such times, those responsible for preparing teachers go about their business of evaluating processes and weighing results. Certifying agencies ponder discrepancies between minimum requirements and desirable goals. College faculties debate among themselves the proper balance of academic and professional courses for teachers. Boards of education define criteria for selection and promotion of teachers in the local school system. And, occasionally, though not often in the past, colleges and universities question the preparation of the scholar for his responsibilities as a teacher in higher education.

But when our national security became threatened during the 1950's and 1960's, especially after Russia launched Sputnik I on October 4, 1957, concern with the quality of our educational system quickened. The public in general and state and federal governments in particular began to examine not only the programs in the schools and the school buildings themselves but also the quality and preparation of teachers. People now look upon schools as a crucial part of our defense against forces inimical to our way of life. Significantly, a federal program to help strengthen our schools and colleges is entitled the National Defense Education Act.

Currently, such stirring of interest is everywhere evident in the spate of articles in newspapers and popular magazines, in dis-

Written by Alfred H. Grommon, Stanford University, and Helene W. Hartley, Emerita, Syracuse University.

cussions in parents' and citizens' organizations and on television and radio, and especially in the resultant action of state legislatures. Professional education and academic groups also are studying with renewed energy problems of teachers' qualifications, preparation, and certification; examining the demands created by universal education in a democratic society; and experimenting with means of securing enough qualified teachers to meet the continuing increase in enrollments throughout the education system.

EFFORTS TO IMPROVE PREPARATION

This volume on *The Education of Teachers of English for American Schools and Colleges* is the fifth in a series on the teaching of English published for the National Council of Teachers of English by the Council's Commission on the English Curriculum. This volume, intended to be a timely contribution to strengthening the teaching profession in this country, is divided into four parts: Part I, Educating Teachers of English for the Elementary School; Part II, Educating Teachers of English for the Secondary School; Part III, Providing for Continuing Education; and Part IV, Preparing Teachers of College English. As background for interpreting the findings and recommendations here set forth, one might well read the earlier volume in the series related to each corresponding part of this book.¹ Some concepts underlying the entire series are briefly summarized later in this Introduction. But achieving the kind of program and the teaching of English recommended throughout this series by the Curriculum Commission depends, of course, upon the quality of teachers of English.

Since the end of World War II several major national commissions have been working on problems of the academic and professional background needed by teachers. In 1946, the Ameri-

¹ The series includes *The English Language Arts* (1952), *Language Arts for Today's Children* (1954), *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School* (1956), and *Teaching College English* (in preparation). All are published by Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York.

can Council on Education defined areas to be stressed in the preparation of teachers.² In 1956, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education also worked on these problems, especially their relationship to a democracy.³ The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education has likewise investigated the problem.⁴ Most recently, the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association, recognizing the need to bring about a "partnership of all segments of the profession in the improvement of teacher education," called a series of conferences to consider the overall problem of what constitutes adequate preparation for teaching. Annual meetings at Bowling Green, Ohio (1958); Lawrence, Kansas (1959); San Diego, California (1960); and University Park, Pennsylvania (1961) were cosponsored by eight important educational organizations and by such major academic groups as the American Association for the Advancement of Science, the American Council of Learned Societies, and forty subject matter organizations, one of which was the National Council of Teachers of English. The reports of these meetings, including summaries of discussions and recommendations, full working papers, research findings, and program descriptions, are among the most useful documents available on the preparation of teachers.⁵ Some organizations have also been investigating the adequacy of the present supply and

² ACE Commission on Teacher Education, *The Improvement of Teacher Education* (Washington: ACE, 1946).

³ AACTE, *Teacher Education for a Free People* (Washington: AACTE, 1956).

⁴ W. Earl Armstrong, "Bases for Determining Curricula for Teacher Education," *Teacher Education: The Decade Ahead*; Report of the DeKalb Conference of NCTEPS (Washington: NEA, 1955), pp. 48f.

⁵ The general title of the series is *The Education of Teachers*. The Bowling Green report (1958) is on *Perspectives*; the Kansas report (1959) is on *Curriculum Programs*; the San Diego report (1960) is on *Certification*; and the University Park volume (1961) is a committee report on *New Horizons in Teacher Education and Professional Standards*. All reports of NCTEPS are published by the NEA in Washington, D.C.

A convenient, informative, readable distillation of the first three reports has been written by G. K. Hodenfield and T. M. Stinnett, *The Education of Teachers: Conflict and Consensus* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961).

preparation of teachers, and the variations in certification requirements, policies, and practices.⁶

Many schools and colleges, some of which are being supported by private foundations, are experimenting in different ways of preparing teachers. Examples of experimental programs are described in later chapters of this volume.

Higher education as well shows growing concern for recruiting and preparing college teachers, especially because of greatly increased enrollments and competition from business, industry, and government. This concern is apparent in Eells' bibliography listing 2,665 books, monographs, dissertations, and articles on college teachers and college teaching for merely the years 1945-1956.⁷

SHORTAGE OF COMPETENT TEACHERS

Of the many problems that beset attempts to prepare teachers, the most pressing relate to preparing enough candidates of appropriate quality to fulfill the need for well-educated teachers. At present the demand for teachers far exceeds the number coming annually from colleges and universities. According to the Research Division of the National Education Association, the public schools opened in 1960 with a shortage of 135,000 qualified teachers. Despite the 6.8 per cent increase in the number of prospective teachers in the college class of 1961, the estimated shortage of teachers in September, 1961, was 138,000.⁸ The Research Division has estimated that 240,000 new teachers

⁶ For example, the biennial studies made by the Research Division of the NEA on *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools*; and with respect to English, the report of the NCTE Committee on Preparation and Certification of Teachers of English (Eugene Slaughter, chairman), the Committee's reports published in *College English* on the states' requirements for certification of teachers of English, and the report of the NCTE Committee on the National Interest, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1961).

⁷ Walter Crosby Eells, *College Teachers and College Teaching: An Annotated Bibliography on College and University Faculty Members and Instructional Methods* (Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Regional Education Board, July, 1957).

⁸ NEA Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1960* (Washington: NEA, 1960), p. 15; *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1961* (Washington: NEA, 1961), p. 14.

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were needed in 1961 for the elementary and secondary schools. Yet the number coming from the colleges and universities in June, 1961, was 139,000, approximately 58 per cent of the new teachers required for adequate staffing of the public schools.

The shortage also affects colleges and universities. The increasing number of high school graduates seeking admission to colleges and universities is creating a serious problem: institutions of higher education are having difficulties finding enough qualified teachers. Whereas about 35 per cent of college-age persons attended college in 1959, between 40 and 50 per cent are expected to enroll by 1970.⁹ This increase means that if the present student-teacher ratio is to be maintained, for every 10 college teachers employed in 1955, between 16 and 25 will have to be found between now and 1970.¹⁰

The problem of securing enough qualified teachers cannot be regarded as temporary, resulting solely from the increase in population following World War II. If prosperity is sustained and the employment of the young in productive labor is restricted as a result of technological advances, enrollments in schools and colleges will undoubtedly continue to increase for at least two more decades. Increased enrollments are consistent, too, with the necessities and goals of our complex American society, for which universal education is essential. Of the expanding need for education in this country, Donald R. Tuttle says in a preliminary report of the Committee on Teacher Preparation and Certification of the National Council of Teachers of English:

Since the standards of the certification of teachers of most states were set, our society has become much more complex. The needed amount and quality of education are vastly greater than ever before. Our citizens must perform more complicated tasks and keep pace with the accelerated discovery of new truths. Inadequately prepared persons are finding employment increasingly hard to get. New standards of preparation of teachers must be established immedi-

⁹ NEA Educational Policies Commission, *Higher Education in a Decade of Decision* (Washington: NEA, 1957), p. 31.

¹⁰ The Fund for the Advancement of Education, *Teachers for Tomorrow* (New York: The Fund, 1955), p. 19.

ately or the schools will fail to meet the needs of our times. Especially crucial is the need for skillful teachers of English, because the mastery of language is the key to all other learning.¹¹

RECRUITMENT AND BETTER EDUCATION

The critical shortage of teachers dramatizes the folly of having to depend upon the annual inadequate supply based mainly upon the "happenstance" of those students who, on their own, come into programs of teacher education. And not even all of those students become teachers. Each year only about three-fourths of new college graduates who prepare to teach actually enter the profession. The National Education Association reports that during the decade 1948-1958 more than 300,000 college graduates well qualified to be effective teachers took jobs other than teaching. Although more than 129,000 of the June, 1960, college graduates were eligible to teach, only 73 per cent or 95,000 actually began teaching that September.¹²

Graduates' occupational choices are influenced, of course, by salary, teaching, and living circumstances—factors that reveal the prestige a community bestows upon education—and by the location of the districts seeking teachers. Although the shortage of teachers is national in scope, it affects some districts more severely and chronically than others. The 1959 NEA report rightly points out that the recruitment of candidates for teaching begins in the local school districts, particularly those chronically short of teachers:

Another and perhaps the most generally overlooked cause of the chronic shortage is a distinctly local one—the responsibility of each district to furnish its share of the raw material of which teachers are made. From some communities there is a regular flow into college of superior high school graduates with the ambition to become teachers. From many other communities this flow of prospective new supply is at a low ebb. Certainly these widely differing conditions

¹¹ Donald R. Tuttle, Preface, *Certification to Teach English in the Secondary School*, Preliminary Report of the NCTE Committee on Preparation and Certification of Teachers of English, pp. ii-iii (Mimeographed, 42 pages).

¹² NEA Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1959*, p. 6; *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1960*, p. 15.

are not accidental. We cannot deny the fact that the enthusiasm of young, impressionable high school students for any occupation is influenced by the prestige of that occupation in the community and the professional pride of those engaged in it. Thus each local teaching staff does or does not inspire some of the best students to anticipate a teaching career. And thus each local administration does or does not develop a systematic program of continuous recruitment.

A good estimate is that for every teacher the local district expects to hire four years hence, the current class of high school seniors should send two excellent prospects to college for the direct purpose of becoming teachers. It is the teaching profession, through its administrative organization in local units, which has the *primary responsibility* for perpetuating itself. When the community asks its superintendent of schools to take the lead in obtaining and retaining a staff of competent teachers, it rightfully expects him to assume leadership in the steps necessary to build up a continuous supply of desirable candidates.¹³

All that is said above about the responsibility of local school districts to send qualified high school students to college to prepare for careers in teaching applies equally well to another generally overlooked factor that may contribute to the shortage of prospective teachers: the failure of some members of the faculties of the undergraduate liberal arts departments to assume responsibility for recruiting academically talented college students for careers in teaching. And yet the importance of a teacher's influence upon students' attitudes toward careers in teaching has often been identified in studies. One example is a study of 3,444 first-term freshmen enrolled in seven four-year colleges which shows that only 459 had selected teaching as a vocation. The analysis of their reasons for choosing teaching reveals that "teachers are the most significant single factor."¹⁴

Higher education, too, must face realistically its problem of finding enough qualified college teachers. In his study of re-

¹³ NEA Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools*, 1959, p. 6.

¹⁴ Martha J. Ballard Cody, Evalyn McNeil Simmons, and Jean Pieper Tison, "Why Are University Freshmen Selecting Teaching as a Profession?" *Educational Horizons*, XXXVIII: 3 (Spring, 1960), 183.

cruitment of college teachers to meet the growing need, Frederic W. Ness says, "There is reason to think that the profession itself does not yet appreciate the full seriousness of its plight."¹⁵ And in the Foreword to Ness's report, J. Conrad Seegers, chairman of the Commission on Teacher Education of the Association of American Colleges, says:

The educational leaders of this country have been aware for a long time of the dangers inherent in our failure to provide an adequate supply of new college teachers to meet the growing demand of higher education; and yet for some time there appears to have been an apathetic attitude toward the problem. . . .

Fortunately, the past two or three years have seen a more vigorous and positive approach to the problem. As is evident in the subsequent pages of this report, many very promising plans and programs have come into being through the efforts of individual colleges and universities as well as through some of the professional associations.¹⁶

The crisis in teacher supply must be faced not only by institutions educating teachers but also by the entire community and the public schools. All have a stake in the solution. All have a part in the continuous process of recruiting, educating, and employing teachers. To start this cyclic process, the public schools must interest pupils in careers in teaching and send capable graduates to college to prepare for teaching, if the schools hope to benefit later from an adequate supply of well-qualified teachers. Similarly, both academic and education departments in colleges and universities must recruit able candidates from among undergraduates. Communities must establish in their school systems salary schedules and working conditions comparable to those offered by employers in other occupations vigorously competing for able college graduates. Only then will the efforts invested by all yield rewards in the numbers of talented teachers entering the profession.

¹⁵ Frederic W. Ness, *The Role of the College in the Recruitment of Teachers* (Washington: AAC, 1958), p. 6.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, Foreword.

THE PROBLEM OF QUALITY

The problem of supplying teachers for our schools is two-fold: attracting candidates in sufficient numbers and attracting candidates of high-ranking intellectual and academic abilities. The consequences of this continuing problem are pointed out in *The Pursuit of Excellence*:

. . . No educational system can be better than its teachers. Yet we face severe problems both in the supply of all levels and in their quality. The number of new teachers needed in the next decade is between one-third and one-half of all the four-year college graduates of every kind in the same period. Since only one out of every four or five college graduates enters school teaching the magnitude of the problem is apparent, even allowing for the fact that recent college graduates are not the only source of supply. The danger of a decline in the quality of our corps of teachers is obvious. Even today it is in need of improvement: as of 1956 . . . more than 21 percent of all public school teachers had less than four years of college . . .

But even with aggressive recruitment there appears to be little or no likelihood that we can bring into teaching at any level the number of qualified and gifted teachers we need. We can be certain that there will never be enough teachers with the extraordinary gifts which make for inspired teaching.¹⁷

Apparently, no recent, comprehensive study has been made of the academic quality of college students preparing to become teachers. Part I and Part II of *The Pursuit of Excellence* include, however, some information on the relative academic abilities of prospective teachers, on college practices in selecting candidates for programs of teacher education, and on the certification of teachers. Part IV includes evidence of what colleges, universities, and some foundations and other organizations are doing to identify and recruit students who seem to have the qualifications to become college teachers.

¹⁷ Rockefeller Brothers Fund, *The Pursuit of Excellence: Education and the Future of America*, Special Studies Project Report V (New York: The Fund, 1958), pp. 23, 25.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION AND PREPARATION

The search for criteria to aid in selecting and preparing teachers and by which to judge effective teaching has had a long history.¹⁸ As background for reading this present volume on the preparation of teachers of English, two publications in particular may be helpful: the first, a report of a study of the expanding professional roles of the teacher in today's schools; the second, a description of aspects of instruction in English throughout our educational system that seems basic to programs preparing teachers of English.

In 1957, the Commission on Teacher Education of the California Teachers Association published a definition of a teacher's professional responsibilities under the following six roles: he is, first, a director of learning; second, a counselor and guidance worker with children; third, a transmitter of the culture; fourth, a link between the school and the community; fifth, a member of a school staff, committed to cooperating with his colleagues; and sixth, a member of the teaching profession, which embraces all teachers organized locally, on a statewide basis, and in the nation to improve instruction within the classroom, to better conditions under which teachers work, and to improve standards of achievement within the schools and the professional status of teachers.¹⁹ This book discusses each of these roles in some detail, showing the diverse responsibilities of both elementary and secondary teachers (Part I) and presenting them also in a form applicable to the teacher of college English (Part IV).

Also important are the particular competencies required for the teaching of English today. If the English teacher is to direct

¹⁸ For an extensive, annotated bibliography on the preparation and certification of teachers of English see the reports of the NCTE Committee on the Preparation and Certification of Teachers of English published periodically in *College English*. For an example see Autrey Nell Wiley, ed., "The Preparation and Certification of Teachers of English: 1960 Supplement to *A Bibliography* (1950-1956)," *College English*, XXIII (February, 1962), 390-395.

¹⁹ Commission on Teacher Education, *Teacher Competence: Its Nature and Scope* (San Francisco: California Teachers Association, 1957).

his students' learning and to acquaint them with their own and other cultures, what should his English course contribute? The NCTE Curriculum Commission has identified five emphases that effective programs should accomplish for the preparing teacher.²⁰ Only a brief resumé of the five is given here.

First, all young people, to the highest degree possible, should discover in the English language an effective instrument of thought, expression, and communication. To learn to gather facts and to examine experience with clarity of critical thought, to organize ideas and information clearly for communication to others, to develop a sense of security in the use of language, to develop ability to think, speak, write, read, and listen "intelligently like civilized men and women"—these constitute a major purpose of instruction in English. To fulfill this function, the teacher of English must himself understand and use language in keeping with the command he hopes to help his pupils acquire.

Second, the student should learn to use language "not merely as a medium of communication but also for expression of one's own thoughts and feelings."

Third, a candidate for teaching should cultivate "reading for personal values and social insight." The continued reading of literature at increasingly mature levels of understanding and appreciation must be an important part of the English teacher's preparation. Knowledge of the great resources of literature, past and present, the candidate's and that of other cultures, should be so fostered by instructors of college English that he acquires a lifetime habit of reading books. He should know the literature that can bring to young people the deepening of personal values and insights that he derives for himself at more mature levels.

Fourth, a prospective teacher should develop intelligent, critical, and appreciative use of the mass media of communication. Demand for artistic values and satisfactions in the newer forms of communication should arise from an adequate under-

²⁰ For a detailed discussion of these emphases and other aspects of English throughout the schools and colleges see NCTE, *The English Language Arts*, Chapter 1, "The Purposes of Teaching the Language Arts," and Chapter 3, "Goals and Experiences in the Language Arts Program."

standing of the potentialities of those media. Traditional programs for the preparation of teachers of English have tended to neglect this aspect of the teacher's responsibilities.

Fifth, a teacher should be prepared to help his students find in English a significant general education that is the right of all and is also the important component of vocational education. As is stated in the Curriculum Commission's volume, *The English Language Arts*:

While some specifically vocational adaptations of the [high school] curriculum are at times desirable, they should represent a modification of general education and not a radical departure from it, and they should never be permitted to change the goals of the language arts program. The need for civilized maturity is just as great for the tens of millions of Americans who must earn their own livings as for the few who will not. Obviously, young people of restricted backgrounds whose education will terminate at the end of the twelfth grade have as great a need as others to learn to use the language well, to think clearly, and to gain the humanizing values of literature. Whatever modifications of courses take place because of vocational interests, the offerings should maintain those benefits of the program in language and in literature which will lead to an appreciation of the heritage of Western civilization, a perception of its contribution to our understanding of the dignity of man, a capacity for clear thinking and effective expression of opinion and a mastery of the skills of language and reading fully adequate to the performance of the duties of business, social, and civic life. . . .²¹

The Curriculum Commission derived these principles for instruction in English from a nationwide study of successful teaching of English throughout our educational system, from the primary grades to the graduate schools. They may serve as guides for the reader of this volume on *The Education of Teachers of English for American Schools and Colleges*.

READER'S GUIDE

This book is organized into four parts. Part I includes three chapters on the educational program in a typical elementary

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 11-12.

school, especially in the teaching of English, and on the kind of academic and professional preparation the elementary school teacher needs to be able to teach English effectively. Part II presents three chapters on the academic and professional preparation of the teacher of secondary school English. Part III in two chapters discusses inservice and follow-up programs both for the elementary and the secondary school teacher. Part IV consists of four chapters on the preparation of the teacher of college English, including background information on supply and demand and some circumstances of a college teacher's position, on undergraduate and graduate study, and on how the college teacher learns to teach.

This kind of organization may, of course, tempt a reader to examine only those chapters directly related to his interests. The contributors to this volume believe, however, that no such divisions exist in the field of English represented by programs throughout the educational system. The program of graduate study in a university is influenced by the undergraduate offerings and requirements in English, which in turn must be based, at least in part, upon the preparation in English offered by secondary schools. So, too, must the secondary school build its courses upon the preparation in English given by the elementary school. The elementary and secondary schools represent commitments to education in the community and the cultural environment families provide for their children. As Conant says, ". . . to a considerable degree what a school should do and can do is determined by the status and ambitions of the families being served."²² The status and ambitions of families influence also the caliber of students enrolled in English departments in colleges and universities.

A reader, then, should examine the four parts of this book. The professor of English may have in his classes students preparing to teach in the elementary and secondary schools. Chapters in Parts I and II may not only acquaint him with the future responsibilities and opportunities of these students as teachers of English but also suggest how he, as a college specialist in the

²² James B. Conant, *Slums and Suburbs* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961), p. 1.

subject matter of English, may contribute to the strengthening of the English programs in the lower schools both by recruiting capable students for the teaching profession and by serving as a consultant to schools striving to improve their English courses and their teaching of English. The persons responsible for this Volume V in the NCTE Curriculum Series hope that the information, examples, and recommendations presented throughout the book demonstrate the interrelatedness of English as a school subject and will foster further cooperation among the schools, the college departments of English and education, and the related academic and professional organizations in the interests of improving the preparation of *all* teachers of English and thereby strengthening English programs in all our schools, colleges, and universities.

To paraphrase Donne, no segment of our educational system is "an Iland intire of its selfe."

Part I

**EDUCATING TEACHERS OF ENGLISH
FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL**

*** Major Recommendations**

1. Higher standards of selection of candidates for elementary school teaching are being set up throughout the country. A candidate's qualifications should include a dynamic personality, adequate mental health, acceptable academic scholarship, interest in children, and appreciation of the function of the public schools in a democracy. Progressive evaluation of the candidate's fitness for the professional program should occur at intervals during his course, especially before he is permitted to enter student teaching.
2. In this and other aspects of the program of preparation for teaching, both academic and professional staff should cooperate.
3. Because of the importance of the candidate's cultural and professional preparation for teaching, his program should include a relatively equal emphasis upon (1) general education, (2) professional education, and (3) an academic field of concentration. The academic area should preferably be a broad one such as in natural and physical sciences, social studies, or the language arts, combining literature, language, speech, and composition.
4. In English he should have ample practice in the effective use of both oral and written language for socially valid purposes. He should understand the historical development of the English language, the processes of linguistic change, and the social bases of usage. He should also have opportunity to read major works of English and American literature with some understanding of literary types and standards of selection of books for future reading. For this purpose, shorter courses than the usual long introductory ones offered for majors in English should be made available to him. Some acquaintance with the myths and hero stories of classical literature would also be useful.

5. For this purpose the following types of courses are recommended as a minimum for all elementary school teachers: at least one course in advanced composition beyond freshman English; one in the historical development, structure, and social functions of the English language, taught with the non-major student in mind; and two in literature, one covering major writers or masterpieces of American literature and one in English or world masterpieces.
6. In the professional program, teachers should understand the functions of education in a democracy, the principles of child development and learning, and the processes of curriculum planning and instruction for elementary school children. Directed observation and practice in the elementary school classroom are indispensable. So also are a course in children's literature and book selection and one in the principles of speech, including attention to creative dramatics and the oral interpretation of literature.
7. A prospective elementary school teacher should have enough undergraduate work in one academic area and preferably in two to be eligible later to pursue graduate courses in them. Academic departments might well consider permitting such students as are otherwise well qualified to enroll in whatever courses they need for strengthening their academic backgrounds.
8. Institutions preparing teachers for elementary schools should move as rapidly as possible toward five-year programs planned as a unified and well-articulated sequence in both academic and professional work.

PREVIEW

THE PROFESSIONAL ROLES OF THE TEACHER

**THE PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD TEACHER OF
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS**

**RECRUITING AND SELECTING PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS FOR
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS**

**✓ THE LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAM WHICH THE ELEMENTARY
TEACHER MUST BE PREPARED TO TEACH**

✓ THE LANGUAGE ARTS IN RELATION TO ALL LEARNING

GENERAL SUMMARY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER 1

The Elementary School Teacher at Work

ADEQUATE SELECTION and preparation of teachers for the elementary school are among the most crucial problems of education today. What the teacher is, the knowledge and intellectual power he brings to his task, the cultural resources he has built up within himself, and the dynamics and stability of his personality will determine in large degree his success in the classroom. The effectiveness of his use of English is basic to the respect with which he will be accepted in the community and to the influence he will exert upon his pupils. He must also understand the function of the elementary school in a democracy, the nature and growth of children, and the psychological principles which underlie learning at various stages of development.

PROFESSIONAL ROLES

The Introduction to this volume listed six professional roles which the teacher is called to fill.¹ Although of unequal importance, these roles delineate the varied responsibilities of both elementary and secondary school teachers of the English language arts and point up neglected areas in the academic and professional programs of institutions preparing teachers.

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¹ See p. 12.

DIRECTOR OF LEARNING AND COUNSELOR

The roles of the teacher as a worker with children—director of learning, counselor, transmitter of the culture—should be looked at first in the context of the classroom. Typically, he teaches daily twenty-five to thirty-five children in a more or less “self-contained” classroom—with one teacher to a class. Occasionally he may secure help from specialists in the teaching of art, music, foreign languages, and physical education. Experimentation is going on now to determine the possibility of differentiating instruction by team teaching and other innovations in school organization.

In addition to teaching in the whole area of the language arts, the elementary school teacher is responsible for first steps in all the important areas of learning—in science, in mathematics, in health and safety, in social studies, and in the arts. The breadth of background needed by the teacher is all but overwhelming, especially when added to the necessary insights into child development and the technical skills required for initial instruction in each area of the elementary school program. Such a demanding assignment calls for a teacher who understands children and child development and who is intelligent, well-versed in the major elementary school subjects, resourceful, versatile, patient, and well-nigh unshatterably poised!

As a director of learning, he must know subject matter as well as he knows children. He must be equipped to think through and secure evidence on such questions as these: What abilities and interests are boys and girls in this particular class likely to have? What values do they live by because of the associations of age, home and community backgrounds, previous schooling, and current happenings? Under what conditions and by what methods do they learn most effectively? How can instruction be adjusted so that both the less able and the bright will do their best? How much physical coordination and stamina can be expected at their various ages? What span of attention? What enrichment and gaps in background can normally be expected from their

home and neighborhood? To what degree and by what methods should substandard English usage be called to the pupils' attention and lessons set up to improve their use of language?

In answering these questions, the prospective teacher should be capable of using, at least in a preliminary way, standardized and informal tests, cumulative and anecdotal records, check lists, and other means of gathering information about children and their environment. He should also be able to use both casual and directed observation and to carry on effective conferences with pupils, parents, and colleagues. If the teacher is to recognize deviations from normal development, he must know how children in general learn to speak and to use written symbols. He requires some knowledge of child psychology, mental hygiene, and simple therapeutic measures. With such background he can assist intelligently many children who need help and will understand when to refer them to competent specialists for professional advice.

Because the ability to communicate is closely related to personality, the teacher strives for insight into the intellectual, emotional, social, and physical needs of each child and, ideally, provides school experiences conducive to growth. He should be able to compare the patterns of growth in one child's development with these processes in the growth of children generally. In addition, if he is to help school children to grow in command of language, he must also understand how the preschool child's language develops and be familiar with the research findings which reveal both the process and the approximate levels of language growth at various ages.²

As transmitter of the culture as well as director of learning, the teacher must know that a child learns his culture as he learns his language. His concepts of himself, of others, of life on earth, and of man's relationships with man develop through communication. Only by knowing how a child's behavior, his language, and his system of values reveal his knowledge and his thought processes can he begin to help a pupil to think critically, to

² Dorothea McCarthy, "Language Development in Children," *Manual of Child Psychology*, Second Edition, edited by Leonard Carmichael (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1954), pp. 492-630.

identify his own values, and to understand their relationship to the values of society.³

The inevitable interrelationships of English with other subjects are obvious. So also is the unique advantage enjoyed by the elementary school teacher in having pupils all day long and in every subject of study. Concepts developed in other areas of instruction, the material they offer for thought and expression, and the vocabulary they stimulate add significantly both to motives for expression and to growth in language power. Conversely, the teaching of basic skills in the language arts, the ability to gather and organize ideas, and the imaginative approach to experience afforded by literature facilitate and enrich the work in other areas of the curriculum.

A LINK BETWEEN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

At the same time, the teacher must be a link between the school and the community. Regarding this role, the commission which developed the statement says: "The teacher is the link between the organized society and its future member. The effectiveness of the school is measured, in the last analysis, by the success with which today's children can meet the responsibilities of membership in tomorrow's adult society. This role, accordingly, includes liaison functions which are necessary for two purposes: to work cooperatively with the public in developing and interpreting an effective program of education and to provide for a systematic induction of youth into increasingly important community activities."⁴

As a cultured person with a broad general education, the teacher demonstrates competency in this role as he shares his cultural interests and abilities with parents and other adults. Recognizing the danger in too constant association with chil-

³ NEA Educational Policies Commission, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools* (Washington: NEA, 1951); Frances Chase Rosecrance, "Toward Teaching Competence," *Defining Teacher Competences*; Report of Special Group A, the De Kalb Conference of NCTEPS (Washington: NEA, 1955), p. 7.

⁴ Commission on Teacher Education, *Teacher Competence: Its Nature and Scope* (San Francisco: California Teachers Association, 1957), p. 18.

dren, he aims to keep a well-balanced outlook on life by seeking adult associates and by participating in the social and civic affairs of the community. Furthermore, understanding the relationship of the elementary school to the local neighborhood is crucial for him because inherent in it are the social and cultural influences which have molded his pupils' thought and behavior. The character of the teacher's relations with the community obviously depends upon his ability to communicate with adults. Personal association with parents in reporting their children's achievement gives him a valuable opportunity to learn from parents their own goals for their children and the problems they face in achieving them and also to clarify misunderstandings by interpreting to parents educational goals and procedures.

Parents and other adults in the community are often mystified by reports in the press concerning new movements in education. Sometimes attacks are made upon the school program, recollections of "the good old days" abound, and often reports of achievement or the lack of achievement appear without substantiating evidence. Such reports frequently cause misunderstanding and unnecessary alarm. The teacher should be able to point to evidence or refer to those who have it and to interpret methods based upon sound psychological principles. At the same time, he should be receptive to new ideas and capable of evaluating them in terms of sound educational principles and of objective evidence. In all that he does, the teacher represents not only himself but also his profession. In fulfilling his complex professional roles, however they may be defined, the competent elementary school teacher is, therefore, almost simultaneously engaged in helping pupils learn, counseling them, making them aware of the culture in which they live, using appropriately the resources of school and community, and meeting his obligations as a member of a school staff and of a profession.

A MEMBER OF THE SCHOOL STAFF

As a faculty member, the elementary teacher is concerned with all aspects of school organization and activity that impinge upon the curriculum of the school and the life of each child. The ex-

periences the child encounters on the playground, in the halls, and in the associations of the classroom, all affect his growth and learning. The teacher, therefore, participates with the principal and other members of the staff in establishing and guiding policies that affect the child throughout the entire school day.

In addition to his work with and for his own class and school, the elementary teacher is called upon to serve on systemwide committees to plan basic curriculum and select curricular materials. The group may be responsible for evaluating textbooks, selecting and ordering trade books for the school library, and for selecting standardized tests for all-school evaluation.

In addition, the teacher will be encouraged to keep up association with major professional organizations at the city, state, and national level, and to bring back inspiration and information for use in the local school system.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Who should teach the English language arts in the elementary school? What kind of person is suited to counsel children and direct their learning?

Some desirable characteristics of a language arts teacher should already be clear. Ideally, he should be a person of intelligence and discriminating judgment. He should understand children and be capable of directing instruction toward varied levels of maturity, individual capacities to learn, and differing backgrounds. He should be able to recognize pupils' needs and stimulate their interests. To select and adjust instructional materials and procedures, he must be a well-informed person with broad and deep academic background. Yet he must be able to comprehend the difficulties of children whose background is neither broad nor deep.

In particular this ideal teacher is notable for his use of clear, standard English and expressive ways of speaking and writing; he is a lover of books, whose enthusiasm for and pleasure in reading encourage similar attitudes in his pupils. He is above all a person who indirectly imparts essential skills and values in the language arts by being a cultured person. Through his rapport

with his pupils, he persuades them to imitate the standard English which he uses. Thus the gifted teacher can, through indirect teaching, improve speech, broaden vocabulary, reinforce acceptable patterns of behavior and expression, and instill the desire to think straight and to express ideas precisely.

The good teacher is alert, intellectually curious, and versatile in his interests. He is interested in whatever comes to his notice—and he misses little of consequence—whether it be objects and processes close by, events over the world, or the mysteries of space. Since much instruction in the English language arts takes place in other areas of the curriculum, the elementary school teacher must be widely informed.

In summary, the effective teacher of the English language arts is knowledgeable, responsible, thorough, stable, friendly, resourceful, well-organized, and sensitive to the feelings of others. His pupils respect him and like him because he is worthy of their full respect. He has sufficient background of knowledge in all of the subjects which he must teach to guide, enrich, and stimulate the learning of children of all levels of ability.

RECRUITING PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

The shortage of teachers at all levels of the educational system has been discussed in the Introduction. This shortage is particularly serious for the elementary schools. During 1960-61, the effects of the tremendous increase in birth rate during the middle fifties were apparent. From 1954 on, the annual birth rate had been more than four million a year in contrast to one million annually in the previous decade.⁵ The estimated enrollment for 1960-61 exceeded twenty-five million. Yet to meet this increase, only 38 per cent of the college graduates in June, 1961, actually prepared to teach; and of this number, only four out of five were expected to accept teaching positions.⁶ To make matters worse, although the number of high school teachers is increasing, the number of new elementary school teachers is decreasing an-

⁵ NEA Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1961* (Washington: NEA, 1961), p. 15. (See comparable figures in the same report for 1960.)

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 14-17.

nually. Yet eight positions are open in elementary schools for every five positions in high schools. Results of this shortage are overcrowded classrooms, part-time sessions, lack of new services, and teachers with substandard preparation for one child in every fifteen.⁷

UPGRADING THE QUALITY OF CANDIDATES

The problem of supply is further complicated by that of quality. Although the range of academic ability among candidates for elementary school teaching compares favorably with that among prospective teachers for the high school, the average scholarship of the students in elementary education in the country at large is lower than that for the high school group.⁸ This situation is not necessarily to be deplored so long as the average for the group is equal to that of the university or college as a whole. Measures of attitudes reveal clearly that, with some exceptions, candidates for elementary school teaching are in general more interested in children than in an area of academic specialization, that prospective high school teachers frequently demonstrate more interest in an academic field than concern for adolescents.⁹ The difference, however, need not cause concern at the elementary school level.

IMPROVEMENTS IN STANDARDS OF PREPARATION

The general level of preparation, however, of the total corps of elementary school teachers in service is improving annually. Today 76.9 per cent of them in the states reporting annually to the Research Division of the National Education Association

⁷ *Ibid.*

⁸ Robert D. North, "The Teacher Education Student: How Does He Compare Academically with Other College Students?" *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*; Official Report of the Second Bowling Green Conference of NCTEPS (Washington: NEA, 1958), pp. 278-284.

⁹ Walter W. Cook, Nolan C. Kearney, *et al.*, "Significant Factors in Teachers' Classroom Attitudes," *Journal of Teacher Education*, VII (September, 1956), 274-279.

have college degrees in contrast to 46 per cent in 1948-49.¹⁰ Twenty-one and six tenths per cent have between two and four years of college work, and 1.5 per cent have less than two years of such preparation.

State certification requirements for 1961 in forty-two states out of fifty-two (including Puerto Rico and the District of Columbia) require a bachelor's degree for the lowest regular elementary school certificate. Two states require three years of college work, six require two years, and two require one year. For the standard elementary school certificate, forty-seven states require a bachelor's degree, and six (California, Connecticut, Hawaii, Indiana, Kentucky, and Washington) require an additional year beyond the bachelor's degree.¹¹

PRACTICES IN SELECTION OF CANDIDATES

Recent emphasis upon the quality as well as upon the number of students admitted to programs of teacher education gives assurance of future upgrading of professional standards. Encouraging evidence appears in a national study made by Ruth Stout in 1957 of practices in admission and retention of candidates preparing for teaching in 785 cooperating colleges of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.¹² Thirty-eight per cent of the colleges admit all applicants, 45 per cent exclude 1 to 10 per cent only, and 14 per cent apply to candidates for admission standards the same as or higher than those in other areas of instruction. In general, less than 1 per cent use standards lower than those for other preprofessional and professional departments.¹³

¹⁰ NEA Research Division, *Research Report*, 1961, p. 19.

¹¹ NCTE Committee on the National Interest, James R. Squire, chairman, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1961), p. 44. California's five-year requirement became effective July 1, 1963.

¹² Ruth A. Stout, "Selection of Teacher Education Students," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*, pp. 248-53.

¹³ *Ibid.* See also Dr. Stout's complete dissertation: "A Study of Admissions and Retention Practices in College and University Programs of Teacher Education." Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Minnesota (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota), pp. 127-136.

The range in practice is great. Institutions with no specific policy of admissions tend, so far as the profession is concerned, to vitiate the results of those having such standards. However, careful research is being done on the problem of college admissions and candidates' qualifications for admission to programs of teacher education. Dr. Stout found greater care in admissions exercised in elementary education than in secondary education departments. "Two factors," she says, "appear to be emerging as basic criteria in selection and retention: personality and communication skills."¹⁴ A cluster of factors, however, is more important than any one or two factors only. Emotional stability, personality, and moral and ethical fitness for teaching head the list of important elements to be considered, according to the opinions of experts. General intelligence and academic success come next. Then come demonstrated ability to work with children and professional interest and motivation. Physical fitness, including vision and hearing, is a basic element in the pattern. One-fourth of the colleges use special measures of proficiency in English at the time of entrance to the teacher education program, and one-fifth in speech. Many use records of these two elements available from the time of the students' admission as freshmen.¹⁵

Candidates for the program of teacher education generally apply for admission to the professional program at the end of one or two years of college work. Successive reviews of the candidate's fitness are required by many institutions, the most significant occurring on application for admission to student teaching. Personal interviews and a continuous program of counseling are considered very important.¹⁶

The Indiana Program. Requirements at Indiana University, at The Ohio State University, at the University of Pittsburgh, and at Beloit College illustrate the practice in carefully established programs. The Indiana program, described in detail in Chapter 2, emphasizes the specific examination of the teacher's speech and oral and silent reading, his ability to organize and express ideas in writing, and his proficiency in spelling.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 250.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 250-52; also Dissertation, p. 136.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 251.

The Ohio State University. At The Ohio State University "selective retention is viewed as a continuous selection procedure in effect throughout the teacher education program."¹⁷ At entrance to the college all students are given a general aptitude test, English and mathematics placement tests, a voice and hearing check, and a physical examination. Throughout a three-hour course in introduction to the study of education, students engage in self-evaluation to determine the wisdom of their choice of teaching as a profession.

Ohio State's series of five qualifications known as "Provisional Acceptance for Teaching" or "PAT" includes (1) a cumulative average of "C" or better in all college work, (2) adequate speech and hearing ability to pass the initial screening test and to satisfy instructors in professional courses, (3) adequate written expression as measured by grades in required English composition, (4) clearance from the Health Center, and (5) satisfactory professional rating from a faculty member who knows the student. The last requirement follows a conference in which the student first evaluates himself. "Such self-evaluation," says the report, "and subsequent conferences constitute the very central core of selective retention. . . . Thus selective retention becomes also a guidance service."¹⁸

University of Pittsburgh. The University of Pittsburgh adds to the measures an average of 2.5 on a four-point scale in two teaching fields, achievement on the Cooperative English test section on the Mechanics of Expression equal to the level of liberal arts sophomores, and a rating of potential success in teaching based on individual interviews of fifteen to thirty minutes with each of three members of his prospective department.¹⁹

Beloit College. The program at Beloit College shows what can be done at a private college where the student body in general is highly selected.²⁰ Beloit's selective process includes the following:

¹⁷ Paul R. Klohr and David F. Miller, "The Ohio State University," *The Education of Teachers: Curriculum Programs*; Official Report of the Kansas Conference of NCTEPS (Washington: NEA, 1959), p. 287.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 287.

¹⁹ Mary C. Austin, *The Torch Lighters: Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961), pp. 17-18.

²⁰ Clarence Von Eschen and Donald A. Murray, "Beloit College," *The Education of Teachers: Curriculum Programs*, pp. 206-208.

(1) admission to the college, (2) maintenance of satisfactory progress toward graduation, and (3) admission to the program of teacher education. Acceptance of the student as a freshman depends upon his academic performance in secondary school; his success on a series of standardized achievement and aptitude tests, including the College Entrance Examination Board's Scholastic Aptitude Test; recommendation of his superintendent, principal, and teachers in the secondary school; evidence of proper motivation for college work; and references concerning character, personality, health, and extracurricular leadership in high school. During Freshman Week the student takes a battery of tests; the results are filed for use in counseling and are available to the department of education when the student applies for permission to enter the program in teacher education. These include the American Psychological Examination, an interest inventory, a personality test, the sequential tests of educational progress in reading, mathematics, science, and social studies, and Foreign Language Aptitude and Achievement Tests.

At the close of the fourth semester the student applies for admission to the program of teacher education. The bases on which he is judged include achievement in general education, command of subject matter in his teaching fields, mental prerequisites and skills, and personal and social qualities. His scholastic record is examined, his honors, his work experience, the organizations in which he has been active, and his experiences in directing youth groups. The application is then sent to the department of education together with information accumulated from the office of the dean of students, from the chairman of the department in which the applicant is planning to major, and from the members of the staff of the department of education. With his application, the student is requested to make a personal evaluation of his qualifications for admission to teaching.

At the end of his junior year, the data are again carefully evaluated and the candidate is either issued a "Permit to Complete the Teacher Education Program" or is advised, after counseling, to consider another vocation.²¹

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 206-208.

THE LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAM

The language arts program in the elementary school has many facets, each important in itself and important also in learning other subjects. The teacher must plan and teach a program of English which maintains an adequate balance among the aspects of English and at the same time recognizes the relationship of each to the curriculum as a whole. He is responsible for developing the knowledge, appreciation, and skills which research has proved essential to a well-balanced program in English. Such a program, with continuity and breadth to help the child develop from the egocentric interests of early childhood to the wider orientation to his world, will furnish the motive and the environment for growth in power to communicate.

The following detailed outline of skills and powers commonly included in a program of language arts in the elementary school presents the knowledge, attitudes, and appreciations which are its goals. The list may prove useful as a guide in the preparation of the elementary school teacher and in the development of standards for evaluation of the results achieved in the elementary school program.

TEACHING READING

No responsibility of the elementary teacher is more important to children and society than the teaching of reading.

Purposes: To help the teacher to develop in his pupils skills necessary to effective reading in all subjects of study.

1. Growing mastery of the skills of word recognition from simple sight and sound techniques to more mature powers of structural analysis—use of context clues to meaning and recognition of parallelism in thought and structure.
2. Avoidance of verbalism by relating the meanings of words to the realities of the reader's experience and to the concepts in the mind of the writer.

3. Greater skill in the use of thought-getting techniques for increasing speed of reading without loss of comprehension.
4. Ability to read for a variety of purposes; that is, to find answers to questions, to skim for general overview or to find a specific point, to summarize facts, to seek clues to the progress of a plot, to understand characters, and to enjoy beauty of description or appropriate rhythm in a poem.
5. Skill in following the sequence of thought, understanding how sentence patterns, paragraph structure, general outline of material, and use of enumerations and transitions are keys to meaning in expository reading.
6. Ability to use simple materials suited to the pupils' stage of progress to solve problems and to do critical thinking through reading, developing ability to state the problem clearly, to judge the relevance of material for the topic, to differentiate important and unimportant ideas and fact from opinion.
7. Power to compare facts or ideas from two different sources, to recognize the relative value of sources of authority, to question ideas in the light of their own experience or knowledge, to organize points found into a final logical sequence, and to discover whether their own opinions may be biased.
8. Ability to choose passages from their own reading which will contribute significantly to the topic under consideration and to read them aloud clearly and with appropriate tempo, volume, and emphasis.
9. Skill in recognizing and using typographical devices in the textbook and other sources which indicate the relative importance of topics, power to interpret pictures, simple graphs, diagrams, tables, maps, and time lines in books suitable for their level of maturity; ability to use the index and the table of contents.
10. Mastery of the alphabet as a valuable reference tool; proficiency in the use of the card catalog and major reference sources such as children's encyclopedias, magazines, and

specific resource handbooks, and skill in using the index, table of contents, and topical headings for economy in searching for materials in books.

11. Ability to use an upper elementary school dictionary as a source of word meanings, usage, and pronunciation including understanding of the symbols used.

TEACHING LITERATURE

Through reading and literature children learn to understand their world and the interrelationships of human beings in it.

Purposes: To prepare the teacher to develop in children in the lower and upper elementary school:

1. A lifelong habit of turning to books for pleasure and for information in relation to all the activities of life.
2. A similar habit of using the resources of school and public libraries and acquiring a personal library at home.
3. Enjoyment of a wealth of interesting stories and poems, old and new, which the pupils have read for themselves or heard read or told by the teacher.
4. Appreciation and enjoyment of the children's classics which have significance and provide pleasure for elementary school children.
5. Appropriate responses to mood, message, and sensory effects in poetry, fiction, and drama.
6. Standards for evaluating books with honesty and individuality, and ability to choose passages which illustrate points made in reviewing them.
7. Initiative in seeking original means of sharing books through written and oral reports, dramatization, story telling, and use of drawing, painting, felt boards, and puppets.
8. Pleasure in listening to the presentation of favorite poems and stories by gifted readers and storytellers on radio or television,

in motion pictures, or on tapes and recordings of the best in children's books.

TEACHING COMPOSITION

The development of ability to express ideas fluently and accurately in writing has always been a major responsibility of the elementary school. It is especially important, therefore, that the teacher in training should become adept at guiding children's observation and thinking, promoting in them power to select and organize material wisely, and increasing their skill in composing clear and effective sentences accompanied by accurate spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and handwriting commensurate with their level of maturity.

Purposes: To help prospective teachers to understand the importance of teaching composition and of stimulating in children:

1. A desire to write and recognition of the value of writing for clarifying one's own ideas, for sharing news with distant friends and relatives, for carrying on business or making plans at long range, for sharing, recording, and preserving facts, ideas, and experiences, and for exchanging messages and social courtesies.
2. Sharp observation, alert listening, sincere feeling, and clear thinking as essential elements in good writing.
3. Skill in careful preplanning and critical thinking as means to selecting and ordering ideas, information, or experiences in logical or chronological order or in storytelling for the sake of suspense and interest.
4. Skills needed in letter writing for practical purposes with attention to content, form, and manner of expression appropriate for the intended purpose, recipient, or occasion.
5. Power to think clearly and logically, differentiating main from subordinate ideas and mastery of the skill needed to make them clear to others.

6. A sense of personal integrity in writing and a willingness to stand by what they have said.
7. The desire and power to express themselves freely and imaginatively for the sake of emotional release or for the entertainment of others.
8. An interest in the use of fresh, concrete, and pictorial words to convey ideas, feelings, sights, or sounds.
9. Curiosity about words: their origins, their multiple meanings, their varied forms, and their relation to reality as a means of avoiding mere verbalism or semantic misinterpretations.
10. Mastery of sentence sense and a feeling for variety in sentence order together with an understanding of the capitalization and punctuation related to the sentence.
11. Understanding of the paragraph as an organized unit of thought and ability to use it effectively.
12. Facility in handwriting and accuracy in spelling, capitalization, and punctuation for making their ideas clear to others.
13. Appreciation of the qualities of successful writing through attention to the improvement of a few elements at a time; that is, teaching through careful evaluation of content and quality of thinking, not merely proofreading for the pupil.
14. A sense of responsibility for evaluating and proofreading their own papers for organization and form before they ask the teacher or some other pupil to read their work.

In all these matters a careful, sequential program needs to be worked out, in which the teacher develops the attitudes and skills suited to the stage of development of the pupils. The primary grade teacher must be equipped to introduce spelling and manuscript writing, for example, as the children are ready for them.

TEACHING SPEECH AND LISTENING

Increased power in speech and listening is basic to the development of language power at any stage of development, but par-

ticularly so at the elementary school level. The teacher must therefore be proficient in these arts himself and skilled in developing increased power in them in his pupils.

Purposes: To prepare the teacher to develop in children in the lower and middle grades:

1. Increased language power as an aid to personal and intellectual growth.
2. Richness of vocabulary and greater power of expression in speech and writing for personal and group activities of home and school.
3. Understanding of the importance of careful and courteous listening in school, at home, in the community, and in the democratic processes.
4. Willingness to take turns in discussion and to listen to what others have to say.
5. A feeling of at-homeness in a group and ease in participating orally in class or small group activities.
6. Effective participation in conversation and in the give-and-take of group discussion and planning; that is, ability to achieve a meeting of minds in the consideration of problems.
7. Increased competence in following with accuracy and courtesy the ideas and experiences presented by others and in making appropriate responses to them.
8. Ability to share effectively experiences, reading, and ideas with other children through simple talks before a small group or before the class as a whole, recognizing that orderly thinking on their own parts will help to make their presentation clear to others.
9. Sincerity in speaking, a desire to secure a response from the audience, and willingness to respond to others with consideration and interest.
10. A sense of integrity in the presentation of ideas and of moral responsibility for the position taken.

11. Increased reliance on the results of their own thinking, ability to make use of vicarious as well as of firsthand experience, and a growing concern for the remote as well as for the immediate in time and place.
12. Adjustment of techniques of listening in the classroom to such varied purposes as making note of assignments, listening to talks or announcements, participating in group discussion, or appreciating or learning from recordings, tapes, and films.
13. Habits of critical thinking and listening, of power to judge the relevance of material for a given purpose, the reliability of sources, and the validity of arguments.
14. Increased power to organize and use materials gained through listening.
15. Improved selection of radio and television programs through developing standards for evaluating them.
16. Enjoyment of creative dramatics and choral reading and mastery of the techniques employed in each of them as aids to the interpretation and appreciation of literature and to the understanding of their own world.
17. Increased ability through speech and listening to recognize and employ standard English usage and to appreciate the importance of effective words and the value of flexibility in sentence structure.
18. Development of clear articulation, enunciation, and pronunciation suitable for their level of maturity, and voice projection appropriate for small and large group activities.
19. If necessary, the overcoming of unusual speech or hearing difficulties with the aid of specialists in the speech and hearing clinic.

In fulfillment of these purposes the prospective teacher must be able to direct a wide variety of activities, to understand the language possibilities in each, and through them all to develop

in each child the highest level of skill, appreciation, and understanding of which the child is capable.

LANGUAGE ARTS AND THE ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM

The elementary teacher faces the continuing need to relate these skills to the integrated program, a relationship which contributes substantially to the motivation of children and to the purpose and significance of learning in all areas of instruction. Children make progress in social studies and in science as they observe, experiment, read, listen, talk, and write about topics under consideration. At the same time as they are acquiring information and understanding in the social and scientific world, they are developing vocabulary, practicing reading skills, having extensive opportunity to develop their powers of critical thinking, to organize and express their ideas in speech and writing, and to enjoy literature, which, by reason of its imaginative insight into human experience, illumines both personal and social living. At the same time, individual pupils are developing what may well become lifelong habits of reading good books, both fiction and informative prose, on a wide variety of subjects.

However, the relationships between the language arts and the rest of the curriculum are two-way. Other subjects provide a wealth of ideas for enriching concepts, for increasing vocabulary, and for stimulating the child's thinking. They often furnish necessary background for the appreciation of personal and social experiences in fiction. They give opportunity to compare or contrast a poet's approach to the same experience. All the events of the school day provide a setting in which communication finds purpose and significance. At the same time, in all areas of the curriculum, children's reading will be related to their individual interests of the moment or to concerns which may prove to be lifelong in areas of learning for which they have peculiar talents.

GENERAL SUMMARY

Adequate selection and preparation of elementary school teachers are among the most pressing problems in public education

today. The shortage of teachers is acute, yet the careful choice of the best is imperative. As a transmitter of the culture and a director of learning, the effective teacher is a worthy representative of the culture he represents as well as an intelligent critic of it. He uses the English language effectively and understands how to guide language learning in children. He is widely read, intelligent in his choice of books, and has a contagious enthusiasm for reading, both as an adult and as a specialist in children's literature. He is well informed in all areas of the elementary school program—that is, in English, science, mathematics, social studies, and the fine and practical arts.

At the same time, he understands the social and psychological principles of child development and learning and recognizes clearly the purposes of education in a democracy. He mingles readily with adults in the community, is understanding in his relations with parents, and acts as an interpreter of the schools to the public. In his professional contacts, he keeps in touch with teachers' organizations on a state and national basis and works for constant improvement of the educational program in his home community.

Because of the importance of the teacher in the life of the nation, increasing care is being exercised in the selection and progressive evaluation of prospective teachers as they continue through college or university. Scholarship above the average of that required by the arts colleges is being demanded more and more frequently as a requirement for teaching. At the same time, candidates should meet high standards of personal fitness and professional competence before being granted certificates.

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PREVIEW

**THE BREADTH AND DEPTH OF KNOWLEDGE NEEDED BY THE
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER**

A MINIMUM REQUIREMENT IN ENGLISH

**THE IMPORTANCE OF THE TEACHER'S USE AND KNOWLEDGE
OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

**THE PLACE OF SPEECH IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
TEACHER'S PROGRAM**

THE TEACHER'S PREPARATION IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

THE IMPORTANCE OF LITERATURE AND A HABIT OF READING

**THE TEACHER'S PREPARATION IN CHILDREN'S LITERATURE
AND BOOK SELECTION**

PROVISION FOR AN AREA OF SPECIALIZATION

**FIVE-YEAR AND GRADUATE PROGRAMS FOR ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL TEACHERS**

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

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CHAPTER 2

The Academic Preparation of the Elementary School Teacher

BREADTH AND DEPTH OF KNOWLEDGE NEEDED

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER working in the English language arts is commissioned to help pupils "to think clearly and honestly, to read thoughtfully, to communicate effectively, and to listen intelligently—acts which have always been basic to the perpetuation of the democratic way of living."¹ He is to cultivate in boys and girls "satisfying and wholesome personal interests" and to develop in them social sensitivity and effective ways of participating in the life of their community and the world.

As a mediator of the culture and a link between children and society, he must first have entered into that culture himself. He must recognize clearly that "unless education can develop in children and young people deep-seated loyalties to their fellow men and to the principles which underlie their life together, the necessary unity within diversity in a democracy cannot prevail."²

Since these words were written by the Commission on the

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¹ NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum, *The English Language Arts*, NCTE Curriculum Series, Volume I (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1952), p. 3.

² *Ibid.*, p. 7.

English Curriculum, the diversity has now assumed world proportions; for, as Jacques Barzun has pointed out, "the United States is the testing ground of the possibility of mankind's living together in mutual respect and understanding."³ If the elementary school teacher is to help to achieve these ends, the richness of his own background in the major areas of human learning is of tremendous importance.

MAGNITUDE OF THE TASK

One cannot read the demands upon the elementary school teacher as described in any book on elementary education without being appalled by the magnitude of the task of preparing him for so important a profession. He must have a good foundation in both physical and biological science and in the modes of thinking and experimentation required by them. He must understand man's struggles to gain control over his environment, recognizing both his debt to the past and his directions for the future. He must be able to generalize from his study and to make applications to many practical aspects of living.

He must know how to focus on the social, economic, and philosophical problems of his day his combined knowledge of history, geography, sociology, and economics, recognizing their relevance to his own and his pupils' world. Especially must he understand the meaning of the struggle of Western culture to preserve the freedom of the individual, recognizing that no man can be ignorant and free—a principle which is basic both to the highest good of the individual and to the development in each of a sense of responsibility to society at large.

The elementary school teacher must also understand that the importance of English "lies in its hold upon the intellect and the emotions of man. The process of becoming articulate and literate is central to man's attainment of full human dignity. Literature helps man to understand his own nature and the nature of fellow human beings; it reveals and clarifies reality, affording illumination—rugged, intellectually demanding, and inspiring—of the

³ Jacques Barzun, *God's Country and Mine* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1954), p. 10.

ideas and experiences of man. The cultivation of literature not only gives to man an access to the ideas and values of his culture and a consequent desire to cherish and improve it, but also stimulates his growth in understanding, sensitivity, and compassion.

"Democratic institutions depend upon intelligent, informed communication, which in turn depends upon the training of all persons to think critically and imaginatively, to express themselves clearly, and to read with understanding."⁴

The effects of the interests of all nations upon the goals of each and the necessity for mutual consultation and action in the modern world require also that the intelligent adult become master of a second language through which he may enter into ideas, feelings, and modes of expression other than his own. The introduction of modern foreign languages into the elementary school program makes it wise for teachers to acquire conversational skill in a second language and access to the culture of another country through reading its literature.

The elementary school teacher must also be at home in the fine arts—in music, in drama, and in the graphic arts. Not only must he know how to guide children in both performance and appreciation of music, art, and handicrafts, but he must develop in them appreciation of the theatre and of the best in television, radio, and motion pictures as well. To do this he himself must have developed a discriminating enjoyment of these media. Enthusiasms are contagious in childhood, and the teacher who finds personal enjoyment in the best can lead his pupils to a similar enjoyment at their own level of maturity. The prospective elementary teacher has a right to expect such stimulation and guidance from his own educational experience in English courses. Only in this way, also, can he take his rightful place among the cultural leaders of the community.

The continuing extension of knowledge in all fields increases professional concern about the inadequacy of a four-year period of preparation for elementary school teachers. Selection of mate-

⁴ NCTE Committee on the National Interest, James R. Squire, chairman, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1961), pp. 16-17.

rial within each area has become imperative. So, too, has stimulation to further independent learning. Unless the student develops intellectual curiosity and methods of inquiry for independent exploration into the major fields of knowledge, he cannot hope to be equal to the task. The major challenge to him and to his instructors in college is to share knowledge in such a way that "hunger for it is increased, not satiated,"—a task much more difficult than merely presenting descriptive materials.⁵

But why all this discussion of other areas of learning in a chapter devoted to the elementary school teacher's preparation in English? Because what the elementary school teacher can do in English in college depends upon what he must do in other subjects, because the teacher's work in English interacts with what he does in other areas of learning, and because both must be planned within the context of preparation for the duties of his profession.⁶

The Introduction of this volume refers to the reports of the conferences of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. All these reports show that participants recognize that because the teacher lives in an organized society, he is expected to reflect wide cultural interests and a true sense of aesthetic values, he must reason logically and objectively from relevant facts, and he must have intellectual curiosity and a zest for learning.

The participants in the Second Bowling Green Conference recommended an equal distribution of time for elementary school teachers among (1) general education in broad academic areas, (2) academic specialization in an area of personal interest, and (3) professional education. Since that time, however, various modifications in the plan have been proposed. The *New Horizons* report of 1961, which is the work of a task force appointed "to consolidate the gains of a decade of research, conference, and discussion and to point the way to future progress in teacher preparation," urges less concern over counting credits and apportioning time among general education, professional education, and

⁵ NCTEPS, *New Horizons for the Teaching Profession*, edited by Margaret Lindsay (Washington: NEA, 1961), pp. 17-32.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 35.

academic specialization, and greater emphasis upon the orientation of all three to the central task of defining the needed personal, intellectual, and social development of the candidate, within the context of his professional goals. "No college," the report points out, "has yet produced even satisfactory beginning teachers by merely adding offerings of a department of education to a nonprofessional curriculum. The unique contribution of the arts and sciences to the teaching profession makes it necessary that those who teach general education or basic work in liberal education share in designing the teacher education program."⁷

GENERAL EDUCATION

"General education," says the *New Horizons* report, "has particular urgency for the professional educator. The teacher stands before his pupils as a symbol and example of the educated person. If he is a well-rounded and informed person with lively curiosity in many fields, he will stimulate students to join him in his interests."⁸ The fields have already been enumerated. Especially necessary, however, are courses that are truly "general" in relating scholarly background to the problems of the twentieth century. So also are those aspects of each subject which increase the teacher's effectiveness in presenting it to children. For example, the elementary school teacher must teach the rudimentary aspects of science—plant and animal life, electricity, the stars, and related subjects such as sanitation and conservation, and numerous other principles of all of the sciences. A general studies course in the natural sciences and one in the physical sciences are, therefore, particularly important for him. Possibly the biggest problem in the academic training of the elementary school teacher is to find courses with worthwhile general cultural emphasis rather than initial courses in a long series of requirements for specialists in a single academic discipline. One university, as its only course to meet the fifteen quarter-hour requirement in science for elementary education, offered a course

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 35.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 40.

in biology. A director of primary education objected to it because, she said, "They go over to Biology Hall every day for a year, and they come back prepared to label all the bones in the bodily structure of a whale, but they can't tell a spider from a bee!"

An analogous problem faces the prospective teacher in choosing a course in English after his freshman work is completed. In some universities and colleges, sophomore work in literature is limited to a ten- to fifteen-credit course in the History of English Literature. For electives in academic subjects, including English and Speech, the student in elementary education may have only eighteen credits. He looks at the social studies program and finds open to him courses like Europe and the Modern World, Representative Americans, World Politics, Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries, the Social and Intellectual History of the United States, the History of Russia, the International Scene, or Economic Issues and Ideas, each carrying five credits. He chooses social studies, for these are topics that will broaden his own horizons and furnish backgrounds for what he is to teach. English departments wishing to meet such students' cultural and professional needs should study the kinds of elective courses that are chosen by elementary school teachers and the reasons for their choices.

ILLUSTRATIVE PROGRAMS

Some institutions do provide courses with general cultural emphasis. The University of Wisconsin program in arts and sciences, after the requirement of a two-semester-credit course in English composition, permits the student to choose from among four sophomore courses, each carrying three credits for two semesters: (1) a Survey of Major English or American Writers, (2) Contemporary Literature, emphasizing critical reading of "significant representative modern prose and poetry," and (3) English Literature and Modern Civilization, with emphasis on Shakespeare and contemporary dramatists, the satire of Swift and others, novels of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, and a few of the greater English poets from the Renaissance to the present, and a year course in American literature. In addition,

the student is qualified to enter an advanced writing course or one in American English, dealing with "the English language in America since the seventeenth century, the development of distinctive characteristics of vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar, and the establishment of regional varieties within the United States." All of these meet directly both the cultural and professional needs of elementary school teachers.

Syracuse University has similar offerings for second-year students: for example, Major Figures in English Literature, American Literature and Culture, and The Bible as Living Literature—all with three semester credits each.

Maryland State Teachers College at Towson offers, in addition to Freshman English, which includes Contemporary Literature, summer courses at the sophomore level in the American Short Story, American Biography, and Elements of Poetry. At Washington State University in Pullman, students choosing English as one of two academic minors have seventeen semester credits beyond freshman English. This minor includes three semester credits of English literature (either before or after 1800), three in advanced writing, six in American literature, and three chosen from Shakespeare and contemporary poetry, prose, or drama. The inclusion of advanced writing seems particularly important in view of recent criticisms of English teaching in the schools. Neglect of composition in the elementary and secondary schools may be but a reflection of a similar neglect in the major and minor preparation in English in college.

From the point of view of general education, humanities courses have peculiar value for elementary school teachers. In the program of Integrated Liberal Studies, for example, at the University of Wisconsin, four half-year courses have been developed which "deal with the records of man's hopes and fears, his efforts to explain his place in the universe and to control his conduct, and his responses to beauty in various forms."⁹ The fields covered are Greek and Roman Culture, Medieval and Renaissance Culture, European Culture to 1850, and Recent American Culture.

Stephens College offers six semester credits in general humanities, which serve as an introduction to the entire field of the fine

⁹ University of Wisconsin, *A Program of Integrated Liberal Studies* (Madison: The University, n.d.), p. 11.

arts, including literature, and combine evaluative and creative activities. This is followed by advanced humanities with emphasis upon common structural principles involved in all the arts. The University of Arizona devotes half of its basic course in humanities to literature and half to art and philosophy.

Charges in the press that teacher training institutions place more emphasis upon professional than upon academic courses have led to two major studies of practice.

Offerings in Twenty-six Other Selected Colleges. L. O. Andrews and R. R. Palmer of The Ohio State University reported at the Bowling Green Conference of 1958 the program of general education in twenty-six training colleges of seven different types in nineteen states.¹⁰ The courses in general education required of teachers differed little in liberal arts colleges from those required in the teachers colleges except that liberal arts colleges more commonly required foreign languages. On the whole, everyone took approximately ten semester credits of English, ten of science, and ten of social studies. Claims that more courses are required of teachers in professional subjects than in academic work are not substantiated by the evidence but apparently are based upon vague notions of what the "normal school" program was like twenty to thirty years ago.

The Program in 68 Eastern Teachers Colleges. Leonard H. Clark of Lyndon State College in Vermont reported in 1955 that in sixty-eight teachers colleges, largely eastern, an average of 51 per cent of the required course work was in academic subjects and 31 per cent was in the professional field.¹¹ The remaining 18 per cent was devoted to elective courses. In these same teachers colleges the average amount of English required was between fifteen and sixteen semester credits. Social studies commonly averaged about nineteen; science, ten; and each of the other subject areas, between two and five. Under these conditions, the

¹⁰ Leonard O. Andrews and Raymond R. Palmer, "The Education of the Elementary School Teacher," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives; Official Report of the Second Bowling Green Conference of NCTEPS* (Washington: NEA, 1958), pp. 322-329.

¹¹ Leonard H. Clark, "The Curriculum for Elementary Teachers in Sixty-Eight State Teachers Colleges," *Journal of Teacher Education*, VI (June, 1955), 114-117.

language arts program usually consisted of six semester credits of freshman English, three of speech, three of children's literature, and three of American, world, or English literature. In many colleges children's literature was a part of the education program, which released three more credits for English. The social studies requirements commonly consisted of six semester credits of world history or civilization, six of American history or government, and three of sociology or contemporary problems.

A MINIMUM REQUIREMENT IN ENGLISH

Because of the importance of English in the personal development of the teacher and in his competence in teaching, it is central in his general education. His proficiency in English influences his adequacy in teaching all other subjects. To the extent to which he can use the English language effectively, he will be able to present subject matter clearly and to stimulate his pupils' interest and their ambition to learn. To the extent, also, of his mastery of acceptable standard English usage will his speech and writing influence similar proficiency in his pupils. And insofar as he is well read and stimulated by constant association with good books will he be able to use the resources of school, library, and community to enrich his pupils' learning. To accomplish these objectives, a reasonable *minimum* requirement for all candidates for the elementary school certificate includes a year's course in freshman English; a course in advanced composition; one in usage, structure, and the social function of the English language; and two in literature at the general education level.

STANDARDS OF WRITTEN AND SPOKEN ENGLISH

Some students entering the program of preparation for elementary school teaching are as proficient in speech and writing as any others in college or university. On the other hand, regardless of admission requirements and regardless even of satisfactory grades in college freshman English or communication, certain students reach the junior or senior year of college incapable of

precise or even acceptable use of English or communication, inadequate in vocabulary, lacking in ability to construct effective sentences, unconscious of the relation of punctuation either to structure or meaning, and at times individualistic in their spelling.

PROVISION FOR PERIODIC CHECKS ON THE TEACHER'S USE OF LANGUAGE

The problem is one both of lack of preparation on entrance to college and deterioration in English through disregard for standards of excellence after the college course in freshman English is over. Both of these matters need attention in college before a student applies for entrance to the program of professional preparation. Central Connecticut State College in New Britain has developed a series of three checks on students' language proficiency. One occurs on entrance to college, one at the time of admission to the professional program, and one before registration for student teaching. In number of colleges, tests of proficiency in speech are also required at one or another of these points in the program. Some universities permit students to satisfy the speech requirement by registration in a course called Speech for Teachers. Others require that all candidates for teaching pass a special examination given by the speech department before they are admitted to the College of Education.

English departments have often faced this problem of the deterioration of students' command of English or lack of concern for standards of expression in the upper years of college and in other subjects of study. Some, like the English departments of the University of Kansas and Duke University, have instituted examinations for seniors to encourage them to maintain acceptable competence in using English. Those failing in their use of standard English are required to do remedial work. At Duke University all professors are asked to report to their dean any students whose use of English in speech or writing reveals a need for further attention.

It seems particularly appropriate in institutions devoted to the education of teachers that a year before the candidate enters student teaching he should be required to take a standardized test in English usage, punctuation, and spelling on which he may

be expected to reach a designated norm before he is permitted to stand before an elementary school class. If he fails to meet the standard set, he then has one year in which to do remedial work and an opportunity for a second testing before applying for admission to student teaching.

Two objections may be raised to such a plan. One is that standardized tests, in general, adhere to formal or outmoded usages. If no appropriate test can be found, the linguists may well unite to produce one which tests what an elementary school teacher should know about the structure and usage of English. No such problem arises in testing competence in spelling although the words used should include those taught in the elementary school.

Another objection to such a procedure may be that ability to pass a paper-and-pencil test does not guarantee ability to use language in a social situation. Even so, the results have value as initial evidence of the student's need for additional help in strengthening his own use of language before he attempts to guide the language development of children.

The Place of the Teacher of Curriculum and Instruction in Upholding Standards. In addition, much can be done in courses in curriculum and instruction to improve the teacher's knowledge and use of language. Actually much is done, because no instructor can illustrate how to teach spelling or usage or punctuation without using spelling and usage and punctuation as a basis for teaching; hence, the frequent remark of some student in the class at the close of such a lesson: "I learned more about punctuation today than in all my English courses put together." The advantage comes from the student's knowing that within a year or a month or a week, he will stand before a class of pupils to teach them something about which he himself feels insecure.

If it is not feasible to administer English and speech tests on a college-wide basis, it is always possible for a teacher in curriculum and methods to give such examinations early in the course and to guide individual remedial work. Then final passing of the tests may be required before credit is granted in the methods course. Many students look upon this requirement as a means of strengthening themselves for the task ahead and not as a hurdle set up to make life difficult for them. Merely knowing

that the college thinks use of acceptable English important for a teacher helps to establish a respect for standards.

The Indiana University Program. Indiana University has an especially thorough program for determining proficiency in English. Early in the elementary school teacher's professional preparation, his performance in English is tested. This examination could be made in an English class, in the student's first course in education, or through a special diagnostic program set up by a counselor. Normally it is made during the junior year. It includes the following elements:

Speaking. Recordings are made of an articulation test, conversation, and responses to questions. The results are studied for voice quality, articulation, enunciation, pronunciation, and acceptable English usage.

Oral Reading. The recording of the student's reading of a story and a poem suitable for children brings to light problems of oral reading and interpretation.

Silent Reading. A college-level test of vocabulary and of comprehension, speed, and interpretation reveals any serious reading problems.

Writing. An essay type of test to be written in class calls for writing under time pressure and without the aid of a dictionary or other resources. A simple research paper written at the student's convenience outside of class may be done with the use of any helps the student normally employs. Both papers are scrutinized for form and organization, quality of thinking and expression, and, in the case of the test, for handwriting.

Spelling. Spelling is studied through the papers mentioned above—the one, a class assignment, the other done outside of class. Spelling errors are analyzed for type and cause of difficulty.

These tests are followed by individual conferences arranged so that the adviser may analyze with each student his assets and his problems. Suggestions are made for self-help if the problems are not serious, and guidance and follow-up are provided. Certain problems demand clinical help in which the student is given

systematic work under close supervision. If he improves sufficiently to insure that his performance will not be a handicap to children, he is permitted to continue his preparation for teaching. If the problem is serious and does not respond to treatment, the student is advised to go into other work. General suggestions are also made in the language arts course in curriculum and methods for self-improvement in reading, composition, vocabulary, punctuation, capitalization, handwriting, and spelling. Almost all students profit from attention to vocabulary, and many can refine their work in other areas if their sights are raised and they understand the significance to children of their teacher's proficiency in English.

KNOWLEDGE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

In use of the English language, the elementary school teacher is a link between the child and his community. Sociological surveys have revealed definite social levels within the population of the United States. Each has its own sense of values, its own aspirations, and its own folkways, including its own usages in language. It is important that the teacher understand the social milieu from which he and his pupils come. Regardless of his own place in these social strata, he must be able to interpret each to the other, to see that in matters of language, for example, no child is made to feel inferior because of the use of language he has learned from his parents and associates in the community. The teacher, as he exemplifies standard English to his pupils, must understand how it differs from the community variants. He must help the pupils to observe the contrasts between the usages typical of their own neighborhoods and those of the standard English which he is there to represent.

HIS NEED OF UNDERSTANDING THE NATURE AND FUNCTION OF USAGE

The prospective teacher should leave college clearly recognizing that the problem of usage is not so much a question of right or

wrong, of grammatical rule, or of scholarly edict as it is a matter of social convention in a wide variety of formal and informal situations. The data in the recently compiled Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada¹² are confounding the textbooks by recording usages acceptable over wide areas of the United States which have commonly been repudiated in the classroom. Distinctions between *can* and *may* should no longer find a place in the third grade where children are still struggling with the difference between *saw* and *seen*. The teacher who would guide his pupils in the observation of usage suitable for different situations must himself have a background in linguistics. Changes in what is known about language and language learning have come about so rapidly that the basic training he received in the elementary and secondary school must be supplemented and in some cases replaced by newer and sounder linguistic principles. In order to understand the relation of usage to social convention, he should become familiar with guides and atlases available to inform him concerning current practice.

In general, courses in communication at the college freshman level have been concerned with this problem and have given equal emphasis to speech and writing. Certain freshman English courses like the one of the Department of Integrated Liberal Studies at the University of Wisconsin have, in addition, been designed to acquaint students with the social bases of language usage. The first half of the course is devoted to writing on topics related to the other subjects which students are taking. The second half deals with the nature and function of language. Available, also, is a subsequent optional course in American English.

MODERN LINGUISTICS

In addition to such introductory work, every prospective elementary school teacher needs a course in modern linguistics—

¹² Hans Kurath, ed., *Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada*. Three volumes of the *Linguistic Atlas of New England* appeared in 1939-1943. Sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies, assisted by universities and colleges of New England. (Providence, R. I.: ACLS, 1939-1943).

not a course prepared for majors in the graduate school but one concerned with the basic findings of modern research. He needs to understand the inevitability of change in language. He should know the basic patterns of the English sentence, why the grammar of Latin is inadequate for describing the locutions of his native tongue, and the relationship between grammatical structure and usage. He should recognize the importance of such findings as those of C. C. Fries that what differentiates the language of the educated man from that of the uneducated person is not so much a matter of usage as of wealth of vocabulary and ability to build up an idea through modification.¹³ Such a course should also include elementary semantics, revealing the varied connotations of words arising from the personal experience of speaker or listener and of writer or reader, and some knowledge of the history of word meanings, our debt to other languages in the realm of vocabulary, and the effect of prefixes and suffixes upon meaning and form. In all these matters, he needs reinforcement from the teacher of methods in learning to apply these newer approaches to language in the elementary school and to recognize those matters which are best left to the junior and senior high schools.

SPEECH IN THE PROGRAM

The intimate connection between speech and personality has long been recognized. Success in teaching depends largely upon the teacher's rapport with the class. If he speaks clearly and convincingly, if by voice and manner he generates enthusiasm for learning, he finds his pupils eager to follow his lead. After he has won their confidence and aroused their interest, he must know how to promote an exchange of ideas, how to lead in evaluating what is proposed, and how to secure participation of each child.

¹³ Charles C. Fries, *American English Grammar* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940), pp. 288-289.

PREPARATION FOR SPEECH ACTIVITIES

In general, the speech activities of the elementary school are the same as those of adult life—relating personal experiences, giving reports, discussing ideas, evaluating processes of thinking, and participating in group planning. Radio and television introduce additional problems of listening, standards of selection, and critical evaluation.

According to Volume I of the NCTE curriculum series, the prospective teacher will learn these techniques in the Fundamentals of Speech course.¹⁴ He will study the personal and social factors of speech behavior and will observe the consequences of his own speech. He will acquire usable knowledge about standards of critical thinking, pronunciation, and language usage characteristic of his community and appropriate to particular circumstances. With this background, he is prepared to meet the general demands of teaching. Through extracurricular activities and elective courses in creative dramatics and storytelling, he may wish later to add to this fundamental program.

VOICE AND THE PROCESSES OF SPEECH

Because of the emotional impact of speech upon others and the place of clear and forceful speech in directing learning, the teacher's voice is of special importance. The tense or disturbed teacher's speech reflects his emotional tones, which are contagious and spread to the class. In analyzing his own speech, the teacher discovers how to help the children to improve theirs. Generally, effective speakers have voices that are easy to hear, pleasant to listen to, resonant, and comfortable in pitch and volume. Their speech has flexibility, rhythm, and an appropriately adjusted rate. Clarity depends upon accurate articulation, distinct enunciation, and standard pronunciation. The teacher demonstrates these voice qualities and speech skills in talking with children and with adults, in the classroom and in public meetings. Practice in public

¹⁴ See the discussion of this course in NCTE Curriculum Commission, *The English Language Arts*, pp. 145-146.

speaking during college will promote self-confidence for speaking to community audiences.

From earliest times, storytelling and reading aloud have been important methods of passing on to children their literary heritage. The teacher as mediator of the culture plays a large part in this program. How to choose wisely the best material and how to interpret it so as to make it live for children are major problems in the elementary school teacher's preparation. George Glasgow, director of Fordham University's speech program for teachers, completed a research study showing conclusively the marked influence of the teacher's competence in the oral reading of literature upon his pupils' appreciation of various literary qualities in prose and poetry.¹⁵ Enjoyment of poetry through the rhythmic recital of it in choral speaking should be the privilege of children everywhere. In the language arts program, pantomime, role-playing, creative dramatics, and the children's theater open up wide areas in self-expression and interpretation of human experience. Such activities involve techniques peculiarly their own, which the teacher needs to understand.

The prospective teacher must also be capable of detecting speech defects, of handling those of a nonstructural variety, and of recognizing which kinds need the attention of a specialist, with whom he must then be able to cooperate intelligently in a remedial program. Above all, he must recognize that the atmosphere of the classroom can often relieve tensions and promote normal communication.

Relation of Speech to Listening. In each of the preceding situations, the teacher should teach listening as he teaches speech. In evaluating oral activities, the teacher must consider questions such as these: Did the pupils secure the points they wanted from a particular report? Were they able to follow the line of reasoning of an argument? Could they distinguish important ideas from unimportant ones? If they could not, was the fault in the speaker or in the listeners? Did the audience feel the pathos in the dramatization or oral reading of Oscar Wilde's "The Happy

¹⁵ George Glasgow, "The Effects of Manner of Speech on Appreciation of Spoken Literature," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, LII (December, 1961), 322-329.

Prince"? Could the children distinguish the Three Billy Goats Gruff from one another? Did they come to know Jo March as an individual human being? If not, was the fault in the reader or actor or in the listener? Every real speech situation involves the cooperation of an intelligent listener. Preparation for teaching should include all such speech and listening experiences.

Problems of Preparation in Speech. Each of the problems enumerated above is the subject of an entire course in the speech department. The potential elementary teacher knows he has too little time for so many specific courses; consequently, he may graduate without any at all. Yet, a course in the Fundamentals of Speech is basic to his own development. So is a course in the Oral Interpretation of Literature. He needs also to know something about Speech Correction.

Many colleges like The Ohio State University and Sacramento State College have developed courses in Speech for the Elementary School Teacher which focus upon the speech problems of the classroom. Other colleges require storytelling in the program preparing teachers for the kindergarten and early elementary level. Individual teachers can elect courses in Creative Dramatics and the Children's Theater, which have been carefully developed at such institutions as Northwestern University, the University of Washington, and the University of Minnesota to meet the needs of teachers. Choral Speaking and Puppetry appear as electives in some programs, along with courses on Radio and Television in the Schools.

The importance of speech is perhaps less adequately recognized today in teacher education programs throughout the country than is any other aspect of the language arts except, perhaps, modern linguistics and the social basis of English usage.

WRITTEN COMPOSITION

The inadequacy of the teacher's preparation in written composition is clearly revealed in a study by the National Council of Teachers of English of current requirements in 569 colleges and universities, 93 per cent of them liberal arts colleges and 7 per

cent of them teachers colleges.¹⁶ All of them require freshman English for graduation, just as all states also require it for certification of elementary school teachers. Although the typical college requires, in addition, seven semester credits in English language and literature, only one in five required composition work beyond freshman English. "In the course in freshman English," the report points out, "prospective teachers compete with college students from all subject fields, nonacademic as well as academic. Normally, the standards for passing such courses are established at the minimum levels of proficiency required for subsequent written work in the institution. In no sense does completion of such a course guarantee that students are prepared for teaching language and composition."¹⁷

Expository Writing. The elementary school teacher needs help with two areas of writing. The first is well-ordered, logical presentation of facts or ideas, involving critical thinking and organization. The second is personal and imaginative writing. A succinct description of the first appears in the bulletin of courses for Advanced Placement of gifted pupils preparing for college, put out in 1955 by the College Entrance Examination Board. It emphasizes frequent writing of substantial expository themes

on subjects sufficiently mature to challenge both thought and linguistic powers—an intrinsically valuable process of mental self-exploration and orientation. . . . The student writer should be capable of grasping a given subject, comprehending and becoming genuinely involved in it, developing ideas from it, and presenting judgments supported by ready reference. He must shun the pretentious and the stereotyped and must avoid the pitfalls of impulse and extravagant sentiment, as well as mistakes in grammar. He should demonstrate a sound and compelling logic, a high level of proficiency in organization, and orderly progression in paragraphs and the composition as a whole. He should convince the reader that real searching and understanding have preceded the writing. The composition should exhibit a feeling for style, displaying both

¹⁶ NCTE Committee on the National Interest, *op. cit.*, pp. 50-55.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

precision and fluency, exhibiting mastery of the varieties of English sentence structure and the mechanics of writing.¹⁸

Although these criteria are outlined for college freshmen, they also fit the needs of elementary school teachers.

Personal and Imaginative Writing. Developing clear, logical exposition is, however, only one aspect of the writing needs of the teacher in the classroom. The elementary school program, like the high school program, must give pupils practice in the revelation of personal experiences through writing for personal release, for organization of experience, and for sharing with others.

"Thinking is not the whole consciousness of man," say Loban, Ryan, and Squire in *Teaching Language and Literature*. "He has other modes of perceiving which derive from the flexible energy of the imagination. 'Logical thinking,' " they quote from an eminent psychologist, " 'clamps down restrictive frames of reference upon the activity which it purports to guide into creative channels. It becomes intolerant of the immediate, unanalyzed primitive abundance of the mind, and by so doing destroys its own source.' " ¹⁹ This may be particularly true of efforts at self-expression by young children. As an example of effective sharing of personal feelings and experiences, the authors of *Teaching Language and Literature* cite "the wholehearted response to life of animated talk among a group of friends sharing experiences when feeling joins with thought to insure a surge of vitality flowing from one speaker to another." This is the background, they say, out of which one learns "to summon up images, feelings, memories, sensations and intuition to evoke experiences in others. 'Poetry,' says Yeats, 'bids us touch and taste and hear and see the world and shrink from all that is brain only'—an extreme statement, to be sure, but one which emphasizes a kind of approach to experience which is very important in the elementary school because it is concerned with the universal problem of

¹⁸ CEEB, *Advanced Placement Program* (New York: CEEB, 1955), pp. 16-17.

¹⁹ Walter Loban, Margaret Ryan, and James R. Squire, *Teaching Language and Literature* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1961), pp. 120-121.

flashing awareness of inner states of mind and feeling from one person to another."²⁰

This is not to say that reactions will be formless and diffused. On the contrary, the purpose of teaching is to give them form and focus. Efforts at objectivity bring clarification.²¹

Archibald MacLeish, in making the same plea in his contrast between poetry and journalism, remarks: "Writing creatively differs from mere indulgence of personality on the one hand and an impersonal job on the other. Imagination is not a fancy as opposed to a fact. It must correspond to the reality of experience of the actual world, for what humanity needs most desperately at the moment is not the creation of new worlds, but the recreation in terms of human comprehension of the world we now have."²²

For increased competence in these two aspects of writing, elementary school teachers should have at least one semester, and preferably two, in sophomore composition.

LITERATURE AND A HABIT OF READING

The importance of literature to an appreciation of humane values is unquestioned. If the elementary school teacher is to develop such appreciation in his children, he must respond to literature himself. Thus preparation in literature, including literature for children, becomes an important part of an elementary teacher's education. Though he may have little need for the detailed study of a literary critic, he must develop understanding, recognition of literary quality, and some depth in response. "Literature is one of the most important media through which the student may become aware of the values, ethical and aesthetic, implicit in his own and other cultures. It can convey

²⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 120-121.

²¹ W. Wilbur Hatfield, "Progress in Teaching English," *The Emerging Curriculum in English in the Secondary School, Bulletin of the NASSP*, XXX (February, 1946), 7.

²² Archibald MacLeish, *Poetry and Journalism*, the Gideon Seymour Memorial Lecture, University of Minnesota (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1958), pp. 7-11.

insight into the range of man's experience and ideals; it can help the reader to understand himself and other men; it can make possible a choice among alternative systems of value. Moreover, as a form of art, it offers these insights through a particular mode of experience which is itself one of life's satisfactions."²³

These aims, written into Volume I of the NCTE curriculum series, are still the primary goals of the elementary school teacher's study of literature. If he is to help his students "to see in literature the reflection of human experience and yield to its power to quicken the understanding and to sensitize the feelings," he himself must have experienced its power through intimate acquaintance with the best it has to offer and through classroom instruction directed toward these ends.²⁴ He must have developed a habit of personal reading, sound techniques for understanding the various literary types, and sources of reference for further reading. He must have evolved a set of mature standards by which to judge the literary and personal value of the books he will read after his college days are over.

Courses in Literature. For these purposes, "the survey course has been widely criticized as being a superficial Cook's tour through a bewildering series of fragments of literature."²⁵ For the elementary school teacher, selected masterpieces and great writers serve a more significant purpose along with broad courses in the humanities which aim to approach literature in relation to "the records of man's hopes and fears, his efforts to explain his place in the universe and to control his conduct, and his responses to beauty in various forms."²⁶ He will begin, in all probability, with the literature of his own country and of England, and if there is opportunity, broaden his background in that of Europe, Asia, and other countries.

At the same time, if these masterpieces are chosen to represent the major literary types, the student may learn, for example, how reading poetry requires an approach different from that required

²³ NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum, *The English Language Arts*, p. 154.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 155.

²⁶ University of Wisconsin, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

in reading a formal essay or a short story. In this way, the prospective elementary school teacher may appreciate aesthetic form both as a delight in itself and as an avenue for interpretation of experience. The courses should not overemphasize form, however, for "young people can be made so interested in formal analysis that a poem ceases to exist for them as anything more than an exercise for detecting multiple ambiguities."²⁷ On the other hand, it is important that they understand irony, metaphor, and symbolism, not as decoration, but as means of expressing ideas.²⁸

A HABIT OF READING

Love of reading, recognition and intelligent interpretation of the author's meaning, and reflection upon cultural and human values presented are objectives of literary study for the elementary school teacher. The program should eventuate in a lifetime habit of personal reading and in standards of judgment for differentiating between books which are worthy and those which indulge in sentimentality, inconsistent characterization, contravention of natural laws, and misrepresentation of human experience.²⁹ The program should develop honest reaction to books without parroting a critic's judgment, and well-established bases for making judgments of one's own.

CHILDREN'S LITERATURE AND BOOK SELECTION

More universally recognized in the teacher's preparation is his need for knowledge of children's literature and of good, wholesome books of recent times which relate daily personal reading to the many experiences of the child's life. Seventy-three per

²⁷ NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum, *The English Language Arts*, p. 158.

²⁸ NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum, *The English Language Arts in Secondary Schools*, NCTE Curriculum Series, Volume III (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956), p. 137.

²⁹ NCTE, *An Experience Curriculum*, English Monograph No. 4, edited by W. Wilbur Hatfield (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1935), p. 19.

cent of the colleges responding to the *National Interest* questionnaire offer a course in children's literature.³⁰ Sometimes it is taught in the English department along with the regular academic courses in literature which form an indispensable part of the teacher's background. Sometimes it is a part of the professional program in education. Occasionally it is presented as library training by members of the division of library instruction.

PREPARATION IN CHILDREN'S LITERATURE

The teacher needs two kinds of knowledge of children's books. One is an intimate acquaintance with books, old and new, which have distinct literary quality. The other is a knowledge of the broad field of good books useful for extending the child's understanding of the world in which he lives, both its past and its present, and for finding himself and his daily concerns in books. Literature, as such, is characterized by the presence of clearly conceived characters, lively action, a setting that broadens the child's experience, a story that deepens his understanding and widens his sympathies. Such books, through their imaginative power, their freshness of humor, and their beauty of language raise him for the moment above the mundane level of his daily living—*Alice in Wonderland*, *The Wind in the Willows*, *Robin Hood*, *King Arthur*, *And To Think That I Saw It on Mulberry Street*, *Charlotte's Web*, *Millions of Cats*, *The Just So Stories*, *Winnie the Pooh*, and *Mary Poppins*—these and many others are a part of the child's rightful heritage to which every teacher should be able to introduce him through storytelling, through reading aloud, or, most important of all, through encouraging him to read them for himself.

The world of the fairy tales—that "universal republic of childhood" of which Paul Hazard speaks so feelingly—includes not only the Grimms, Perrault, Asbjørnsen, Joseph Jacobs, and Hans Christian Andersen but many more recent talented tellers of the tales of the Indians, of the Southern Highlands, of Ballywooden, and of the Green Knowe.³¹ The heroes of bygone days who people

³⁰ NCTE Committee on the National Interest, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

³¹ Paul Hazard, *Books, Children and Men* (Boston: The Horn Book, Inc., 1944), p. viii.

the pages of the Old Testament, the Greek and Roman myths, the country of Asgard, and the historic lands of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* should be a part of the literary legacy of children everywhere. And there will still be room for Paul Bunyan, Pecos Bill, and the heroic Indians of the plains. In these the teacher finds his best selections for storytelling and for reading aloud.

The poets, too, with their melody, their freshness of insight, and their key to the realms of mystery and surprise, can touch all of life with imagination and give the charm of novelty to the things of every day. Walter de la Mare, Robert Frost, Eugene Field, Rowena Bennett, Marchette Chute, Robert Louis Stevenson, Vachel Lindsay, Elizabeth Madox Roberts, Rose Fyleman, and many others should have an intimate place in the experience of boys and girls, and similarly, in that of their teachers.

BACKGROUND IN GENERAL READING

At the same time, the teacher who is to develop in his pupils a love of reading must be at home in books which extend their understanding of the world in which they live. Justly famous stories of childhood are *The Moffats*, *Henry Huggins*, *Henry Reed, Inc.*, *Wait for William*, *Peter's Long Walk*, and the *Betsy* books, or the stories of the children who make up America like Leo Politi's *Juanita*, Ann Nolan Clark's *Little Navajo Bluebird*, Margery Clark's *The Poppy Seed Cakes*, Doris Gates's *Blue Willow*, or Virginia Sorensen's *Plain Girl*.

Other stories create a pride in our country's past, like Alice Dalgliesh's *The Fourth of July Story* for little children, which, in rhythmic and dignified prose filled with emotional overtones, relates the message of the Liberty Bell, or Robert Lawson's *Mr. Revere and I*, told by the famous rider's horse. The *Little House* series of Laura Ingalls Wilder, in simple, genuine stories, helps American children to feel the warmth and security of home life amid the hardships and dangers of pioneer days. *Caddie Woodlawn* by Mrs. Brink is another book of the same kind, in which families prove to be very much alike in all generations, however different the outward circumstances of their lives may be. Again, thrills of the westward movement permeate through

Howard Driggs' *The Pony Express Goes Through*, Parkman's *Oregon Trail*, and O'Moran's *Red Eagle: Buffalo Bill's Adopted Son*.

Children of other countries come alive through books—*Heidi* of Switzerland, *Little Pear* and *Mei Lei* in China, the children of *The Good Master* in Hungary, and those of *The Wheel on the School* in Holland.

The personal interests of boys and girls are perhaps the surest key to unlocking for them the riches in children's books. It may be *The Wonderful World of Mathematics*, *First Experiments in Science*, or the *Story of the Geophysical Year* that will start some boy on the road to reading. For a girl it may be *Marionettes*, *Masks and Shadows* or *Tune-Up*, the story of the orchestra. For some children it may be Indian lore as in *The Indian's Secret World* or *Indian Sign Language*; for others, *Ballet Shoes*, *Peter and the Wolf*, or *The Nutcracker*.

For all of them it may well be that the books which are just for fun will keep them reading longest: *Mr. Popper's Penguins*, *My Father's Dragon*, *The Duchess Bakes a Cake*, or *Alphonse, That Bearded One*. For all of them, too, it will be a love of animals, whether in *Make Way for Ducklings*, *The Circus Baby*, *Mittens*, *Elijah the Fishbite*, or the magnificent horses and dogs in such stories as Marguerite Henry's *King of the Wind* or James Kjelgaard's *Big Red*.³²

BOOKS AND THE DAILY PROGRAM

Whatever it is that leads children to books, the teacher who knows boys and girls and the riches books hold for them will be able to open the door to a lifetime of reading.³³ Such a teacher, having himself learned the riches in books and having demonstrated in his own personal habit of reading the significant place they have in his daily living, relates books to every activity of the school day. If children at the early elementary level are

³² George W. Norvell, *What Boys and Girls Like to Read* (Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Company, 1958).

³³ Martin Mayer, "Books in the Schools," *Books in the Schools* (New York: ABPC, 1961), pp. 1-8.

going to the library, he remembers *Rosa Too Little*, the story of the little girl who learned to write her name so that she could have a library card, or *Mike's House*, the delightful title which a small boy at the story hour gave to the library because it housed *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel*. If snow comes, the teacher may think immediately of Tresselt's *White Snow*, *Bright Snow* or the Haders' *The Big Snow*. He may also have on hand Bell's *Snow* with its fascinating diagrams of snowflakes. If older children tell of their parakeets, he will recall Herbert Zim's informative little book on the subject. The holidays, too, bring a search for good stories and poems for Christmas, for Easter, for Thanksgiving, or for the birthdays of the February patriots. These may lead engagingly to birthday stories of boys and girls at home and abroad.

Sources of Reference. But merely to know the books is not enough. The prospective teacher should leave the course in children's literature eager to keep on reading. The field of children's books grows richer year by year. From a thousand to fourteen hundred children's books pour from the presses annually, some to become the so-called children's classics of tomorrow, some invaluable in their presentation of new knowledge, others indescribably tawdry in story and picture, made to order for cheap entertainment.

The teacher must develop standards of wise selection. His aim will be to find only the best editions of the fairy and folk tales for storytelling, poetry that is more than rhymed precepts, stories of child life that ring true, and information, directly given, that squares with the facts. Continued search for children's books demands ability to use recognized sources of reference such as the *Children's Catalog*. It necessitates knowledge of the best books about literature for children, like May Hill Arbuthnot's *Children and Books*, Anne Eaton's *Reading with Children* and *Treasure for the Taking*, Phyllis Fenner's *The Proof of the Pudding*, and Annis Duff's *Bequest of Wings*. Keeping up to date requires also diligent reading of such periodicals as *The Horn Book Magazine*; *Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books* of the University of Chicago, and the children's book page of newspapers like the *New York Herald Tribune: Books*.

It requires acquaintance with the reading lists of the National Council of Teachers of English and the American Library Association. Above all, it demands a habit, established during the children's literature course, of frequenting children's bookshelves weekly wherever they are—in the children's room of the public library, in the bookstores, and in the schools.

GUIDING CHILDREN'S READING

Competence in guiding children's reading demands also an understanding of the wide range of reading ability represented in any normal classroom and of the spread in reading difficulty available in books on many subjects of interest to boys and girls. The life of Abraham Lincoln, for example, is told in good books for children who read at each level from about the third or fourth grade up. Finding the right books for the right child involves knowing both the interest level and the reading level of the material. Helen Blair Sullivan's *High-Interest Low-Vocabulary Book List* (Boston University) and George Spache's *Good Books for Poor Readers* (Garrard Press) are very helpful to the teacher faced with this problem.

Varieties of College Programs. Universities and colleges have different methods of meeting the teacher's need for knowledge of children's books and their place in the growth of boys and girls. According to the responses of teachers of reading methods in the recent survey made at Harvard University, the combined efforts of training institutions seem to be relatively successful.³⁴ Illinois State Normal University offers three successive courses in the English department. Folk Literature deals with fairy and folk tales, myths, legends, and fables. Modern Literature for Children gives special emphasis to children's fiction of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Verse for Children concentrates on poetry and poets suitable for reading by elementary school children. Additional graduate courses are being developed.

The Appalachian State Teachers College in North Carolina

³⁴ Mary C. Austin, *The Torch Lighters: Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961), pp. 50-51.

requires of elementary education majors two courses taught in the Division of Library Instruction: Children's Literature, and Books and Materials for School Libraries. Graduate courses for teachers also emphasize knowledge of books and their classroom use. One such course is called Literature and the Child; another, Correlating Teaching with the Library; and the last, the Children's Literature Workshop.

The University of Minnesota offers a single undergraduate course called Children's Literature, taught in the College of Education, and a similar graduate course. Both require carefully individualized reading based upon each student's previous knowledge of children's books, his personal evaluation of what he reads and his development of standards of selection of books for reading, his use of source materials, and his preparation of an annotated book list based upon a specific need found in his teaching experience with children in the classroom. Wide reading from the university, public, and school libraries forms the base of both the undergraduate and the graduate course.

At Goucher College (pp. 77-78) the second and third terms of a three-quarter course called the Curriculum in the Elementary School are devoted to the place of creative writing, dramatic activities, literature for children, and games, rhythms, and recreational activities, in relationship to all areas of learning in the elementary school program. Similar courses, sometimes called the Child and the Curriculum, also combine materials, methods, and classroom visitation. One of these is at the University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee, and another is in the State University of New York College at Albany. Maryland State Teachers College at Towson has a similar course. Most of these institutions, however, offer, in addition, either a required or an elective course in children's literature.

PROVISION FOR SPECIALIZATION

In addition to the program in general education, an area of academic specialization for elementary school teachers will enable the prospective teacher to be "a well-educated human

being" and will give him an opportunity to develop his own peculiar talents. As Andrews and Palmer point out, the academic requirements of the teachers colleges commonly have greater breadth than those of the liberal arts colleges, but they reveal a distinct lack of depth—hence the effort to remedy this weakness by requiring of the elementary school teacher an area of academic specialization.³⁵

The requirement parallels a recent movement in the elementary school to choose a staff well balanced in personal interests and abilities. For example, one person who is especially adept in science and broadly trained in it may share his wealth of background with the other teachers. Similarly, one with a major in the speech arts or English may help his colleagues with choral speaking or with creative writing or dramatics, or with a new field like structural linguistics, or he may keep them informed of new and interesting books available both for personal reading and for use with children. Teachers with special talent and background in social studies, music, or art will also be useful as resource persons for an elementary school staff.

The *New Horizons* report is undoubtedly right in saying that the present academic major for secondary school teachers will not serve the purposes of the elementary school for, in the main, such majors are geared to "subject matter coverage" in a single area; whereas the elementary school teacher is committed to the teaching and interrelating of many areas. The plan for increased study in "depth" for the elementary school teacher is also committed to releasing more time for the individual to pursue his own interests and to develop his own peculiar talents. The *New Horizons* report offers good advice—that professors in general education, academic specialization, and professional education should sit down together to determine *within the context of the teacher's professional responsibility* what is the most profitable kind of program in advanced academic study for the elementary school teacher.³⁶

³⁵ Leonard O. Andrews and Raymond R. Palmer, "The Education of the Elementary School Teacher," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*, p. 329.

³⁶ NCTEPS, *New Horizons for the Teaching Profession*, pp. 46 and 35.

ILLUSTRATIVE PROGRAMS

Several programs are underway. What the elementary school teacher may do in advanced study in English depends, in a large measure, on the extent of the requirements in general and professional courses. The total college program will therefore be presented.

The Goucher College Program in Liberal Arts. An interesting course for elementary teachers is the liberal arts program at Goucher College leading to a Bachelor of Arts degree. On completion of either a four-year or a five-year program, a student may apply for a teacher's certificate. The program combines both breadth and depth. "Since the curriculum of the elementary school," says the director of the program in teacher education, "demands information in many areas of knowledge, the candidate preparing to teach in the elementary grades should take advantage of the unusual opportunities in a liberal arts institution and should include in her program courses in economics, English composition, fine arts, foreign language, history, literature, mathematics, music, philosophy, political science, and speech."

General education courses are to be selected from three divisions: (I) languages, literature, philosophy, and the arts; (II) history and the social sciences; and (III) natural sciences and mathematics; two from each of the first two divisions, and four from the third. The program summarized here represents that chosen by one student at Goucher. The emphasis upon English indicates this individual candidate's special interest in that field. The absence of a course in children's literature is explained by the inclusion of both material and content in the three-term curriculum course in professional education, where such materials are introduced in direct relationship to their use in the elementary school. This particular program, qualifying the applicant for a B.A. degree and a teacher's certificate, includes, then, thirty quarter-credits in English, twenty-five each in social studies, fine arts, and the combination of science and mathe-

matics, twenty in logic, religion, psychology, and speech—an interesting combination of breadth and depth.

The freshman year includes one term of Freshman English, two terms of Intermediate French, one term of Religion and Literature of the Old Testament, two terms of Form and Content in Visual Arts, two terms of General Physics, and one term of Introduction to Music.

The sophomore year includes one term of Shakespeare, one term of Houses and Housing (in fine arts), two terms of history (the United States and Russia, and Historical Geography of the United States), one term of Physiology of Man, one term of Introduction to Psychology, one term of Child Development, one term of Introduction to Sociology, and one term in political science (Comparative Governments).

The junior year includes three terms in education (Educational Psychology, Music for Children, and Curriculum in the Elementary School), one term of Critical Writing, one philosophy course in Logic, one course in Speech Improvement, one term of Language and Concepts of Mathematics, and two terms in French (French Romantic Literature, and Naturalism and Symbolism).

The senior year includes six courses in education (Curriculum in the Elementary School for two terms, the History of Education for one term, Seminar in Educational Problems for one term, Art for Children in the Elementary School for one term, and Observation and Student Teaching for one term), two terms of English (Chaucer, and Study of Poetry), and one term of sociology.

At Goucher, physical education is required for two years but is without credit; hence it is not on this schedule. Two or more English courses and a different choice of course, such as American Literature instead of Chaucer, would also be possible if individual time schedules permit substitution for two courses in the social studies.

The University of Washington. The five-year program of teacher education at the University of Washington in Seattle includes a general education course required of all students, together with some courses required only of elementary school

teachers. The prospective teacher is required to take a major of thirty-six quarter credits in education. If his chief interest is in English, he may qualify for an area concentration of thirty credits in this field in addition to freshman English. To this he adds two secondary areas of concentration, one of twenty credits and one of ten. In addition to basic courses in health, nutrition, art, music, children's literature, and industrial arts for the elementary school, all of which count as general education, he may graduate with five 5-credit courses in English beyond freshman English, and three courses in speech; for example, he may choose from Introduction to Fiction, Introduction to Poetry, Shakespeare, American Literature, the English Language, Oral Interpretation of Literature, Creative Dramatics for Children, and a basic course in Speech Improvement. His secondary areas of concentration would then require courses in American, local, and European history, and geography, government, and sociology along with ten credits in science.

The Program at Washington University in St. Louis. A program recently adopted at Washington University in St. Louis allows for seventy-two semester credits in general education, including communication (three to nine credits, depending upon exemptions), three fields of social studies (fifteen credits, including such courses as Western Civilization, History of the American People, Peoples and Cultures of the World, and American Government and Politics), twelve credits divided between biological and physical sciences, eighteen in humanities (including Chief English Writers, the History of Art, the History of Philosophy, Introduction to Art, and Mathematics or Logic), and six credits in physical education. This leaves eighteen senior college credits for an English major, which may include dramatics, speech, and journalism, and thirty for professional courses. Since a number of subject matter courses in Art for Children and the like are included in the general education requirements for teachers, the thirty credits would seem to provide amply for the professional work.

Miscellaneous Majors. A major in speech such as the one at the University of Washington in Seattle would prove very useful to an elementary school teacher, particularly if he is allowed

to cross boundaries within the department such as general speech, theater, and speech correction. His major could then include, along with general courses in speech, such offerings as the Oral Interpretation of Literature, Choral Speaking, Puppetry, Play Writing, Play Production, Creative Dramatics with Children, the Children's Theater, and elementary work in Speech Correction.

San Francisco State College offers a similarly broad selection of courses in the writing of different literary types for those especially interested in creative work.

Broad Fields Programs. "Broad fields" majors, multiple minors, and free choice of courses at the senior college level are all being tried as possible answers to the elementary teacher's need. "Broad fields" majors have been recommended by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education as especially appropriate because of the breadth of background they offer.³⁷ As the major programs in American studies, the humanities and the language arts are now set up for secondary school teachers, the number of credits they require is prohibitive for the elementary school program in teacher education. The course in American studies at the University of Minnesota, for example, requires, in addition to 75 quarter credits in general education, 74 credits in courses focusing upon American literature and arts, American humanities, American history, and sociology and economics. The program culminates in a Proseminar in American Studies which brings all of these areas to bear upon the present problems and culture of the United States and their origins in the past. The integration of fields in this area has great promise for the elementary school teacher if the number of courses included could be adjusted to fit the other areas of his program. Similar courses at Amherst, at the University of Florida, and Washington University in St. Louis are also of interest.³⁸

Majors in the language arts have been developed at the Uni-

³⁷ W. Earl Armstrong, "Basis for Determining Curricula for Teacher Education," *Teacher Education: The Decade Ahead*; Report of the DeKalb Conference of NCTEPS (Washington: NEA, 1955), pp. 48-52.

³⁸ Robert H. Walker, *American Studies in the United States: A Survey of College Programs* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1958).

versity of Utah, the University of Kansas, the University of Minnesota, and elsewhere. They require a basic selection of courses in English language, composition, and literature, in American literature, and in speech, together with some courses in mass communication, journalism, or library work suitable for candidates for high school teaching. Here, also, the number of courses required is almost prohibitive for elementary school teachers.

Courses from which a language arts major for elementary school education might be selected include such English courses as English and American Literature, Advanced Writing, Introduction to Modern English, the Popular Ballad, Types of Contemporary Poetry, American Folklore, the Bible as Literature, courses in the Novel, Drama, or Poetry, and Classical Mythology.

Speech courses might be chosen from Basic Speech Improvement, the Psychology of Speech, Oral Interpretation of Literature, Panel and Group Discussion, or Classroom Problems in Speech and Hearing Disorders. Drama courses might consist of Beginning Acting, Introduction to the Theater, Creative Dramatics, Children's Theater, or Puppetry. Others might be Mass Communication in the United States or the Library in the Elementary School.

At present, very few sequences in the humanities appear to extend into the senior college. The University of Chicago's major is a four-year course. At Minnesota State College in Bemidji, prospective teachers may take a major in American humanities totaling forty-six quarter credits beyond freshman English. Possible choices of courses include American Humanities, American History, American Literature, Advanced Composition or Creative Writing, Modern Usage, or Introduction to the English Language, Shakespeare, World Literature, Modern Drama, American Music, Conservation, American Constitutional History, and Modern Poetry.

Multiple Minors. A second means of caring for increased work in academic areas follows the "multiple minors" pattern. The program established at Michigan State University seems especially appropriate for elementary school teachers. Students may choose either four academic minors of twenty-three quarter

credits each or two such minors plus a major of thirty-six quarter credits. In either case, one of the minors must be in speech and English combined unless the major chosen is in that area. These combinations would insure for every elementary school teacher the kind of basic program in the language recommended in this report (p. 55) and would at the same time require a reasonably strong major in an academic field of specialization if the student chose the option of a major and two minors. Of all the programs yet devised, this one seems to give the best opportunity for combining breadth and depth and for adjusting the program to the individual abilities of the teachers concerned. It would, also, in all probability establish prerequisites for continued work in these areas at the graduate level if the student were interested in further study.

Controlling the Number of Senior College Credits. Another means of meeting the same needs is to require in the student's program twenty-five credits or more in senior college courses, leaving the individual student and his adviser to select the areas of study best for the individual concerned. This requirement would insure his taking work of greater challenge than freshman and sophomore courses but would give a wider range of choice among fields of study.

ELIMINATING SUBSTANDARD PROGRAMS

The persistent desire throughout the country to upgrade the academic program of the elementary school teachers augurs well for the future of elementary education. Both academic and professional staffs are uniting wholeheartedly in protest against the nearly obsolete program of junior college courses which in times past characterized the old "normal school" offering in academic subjects. A very few still remain. One, summarized here, is required of both kindergarten-primary and elementary education candidates in an accredited state college and leads to a Bachelor of Arts degree. The bulletin specifically says that no majors and minors are required. The program includes forty-four prescribed credits in academic work and sixty-one to sixty-five in education, a proportion very far from the one to one relationship among

general education, professional education, and an area of academic specialization proposed earlier in this chapter. Grossly inadequate are six credits in English, six in history, eight in the humanities, eight in biological and physical science; three each in psychology, sociology, science, and government; and two each in speech and hygiene.

Every course except perhaps the two-credit course in science is initial in its field. Humanities might conceivably be a sophomore subject. Among primary teachers, the women have nineteen elective credits and the men only thirteen because of required military science. In the program for intermediate grade teachers, the corresponding numbers are thirty and twenty. These electives, however, may be used in either education or academic courses. Because the bulletin suggests no major and no minors, courses are likely to be scattered over many areas. Certainly the teacher needs more than freshman work in most of the fields required. Such programs appear much less frequently than formerly, but the few that still exist should be a cause for protest on the part of all concerned with the preparation of teachers.

ELIGIBILITY FOR ACADEMIC GRADUATE STUDY

Perhaps the most harmful results of such a substandard curriculum come to the fore in graduate study. Students who have completed this program have Bachelor of Arts degrees. They may be eligible to enter graduate schools. The only subject, however, in which they are qualified to pursue graduate study is education. Numbers of courses in education will undoubtedly have special significance for them because of weaknesses revealed in their own teaching. Certainly, however, they will have discovered in their early years of teaching the inadequacy of their background in academic work. They come back to college wanting to learn more history or social studies, more science, or more English, along with their additional work in professional subjects; but they find themselves ineligible for any graduate work in these academic fields. Accordingly, they register for credit after credit in professional subjects, with elementary education as a

major and educational psychology as a minor, and return to the classroom as untutored in the fields in which they teach as they were when they left college. One of the bases for selection of academic courses for elementary teachers should certainly be eligibility to pursue further at the graduate level one or preferably two academic subjects. At the same time, students seeking admission to the graduate school should be able to write effective term papers and reports. Many students' experience suggests need of work in expository writing beyond the freshman course.

FIVE-YEAR AND GRADUATE PROGRAMS

Virtually all studies agree that the program of preparation for elementary teaching should ultimately be five years in length.³⁹ A five-year program with both academic and professional courses proceeding together from at least the second or third year on clarifies the interrelationships between the two and recognizes the contribution of each to the goals of teaching. It also provides a time lapse for reflection and observation between the introduction of the student to professional problems and the necessity of his coping with them in the classroom.⁴⁰

THE STANFORD UNIVERSITY PROGRAM

One five-year program leading to the Master of Education degree with the teaching credential is that offered by Stanford University, adopted in the spring of 1959 in an "effort to free the undergraduate years for extended general education."

The general studies program of the university requires seventy-seven quarter credits, to which are added forty-four credits in extended general education for the elementary educa-

³⁹ AACTE, *Teacher Education for a Free People* (Washington: AACTE, 1956). NCTEPS, *New Horizons for the Teaching Profession*, p. 75. NEA Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1961* (Washington: NEA, 1961), p. 19. "Entrance into classroom service at the bachelor's degree level is condoned only as a temporary step; the goal is a five-year program so planned that the fifth year is a continuance toward fulfillment of the original design."

⁴⁰ NCTEPS, *New Horizons for the Teaching Profession*, p. 65.

tion program. After that, the student takes twenty-five credits in one area of concentration. The university requirements include twelve quarter credits in social studies (history of Western civilization), thirty-eight in the humanities (with nine credits in English, twenty-one in foreign language, and the rest elective), twenty-three in the sciences (including nine in biology, nine in physical science, and five in psychology), and four quarter credits in senior colloquia.

The elementary education requirements in extended general education include twenty credits in the social sciences (political science or history), five in mathematics, four in physical education, fifteen in the humanities (including linguistics, poetry, and literature), and thirty-five credits of additional concentrated study in one area of knowledge selected in consultation with the adviser.

In this program all candidates for teaching credentials will have the following courses in the language arts: freshman English, literature (supplemented with art and music), linguistics, and electives.

In addition, any student choosing English as an area of concentration could, if he used his electives in the humanities for this purpose, complete the following courses: Introduction to the English Language, Shakespeare, Introduction to the Novel, Introduction to Poetry, Introduction to the Drama, American Literature: 1850-1900, American Literature of the Twentieth Century, English Literature of the Nineteenth Century, and either English Literature of the Renaissance or English Literature of the Restoration and Eighteenth Century. For some of these, however, he would, in all likelihood, wish to substitute courses in speech or writing.

The professional work of the program is divided between twenty-six undergraduate and forty-seven graduate quarter credits in education. This arrangement enables the candidate to qualify for the teacher's certificate before the end of the fifth year. The professional work in education includes such courses as the Elementary School in America, Child Psychology, Middle Childhood, Social Foundations, Philosophy of Education, Health Foundations, and Psychological Foundations.

Fifth-year courses in education include Participation in Elementary Schools, Curriculum and Instruction in Elementary Schools (according to subject matter), Audiovisual Laboratory, and Directed Teaching.

Other colleges will find values in the preceding program whether or not they prefer to have both education and academic work spread throughout the five years.

A FIFTH YEAR IN THE TEACHERS COLLEGES

For a number of years teachers colleges have been offering a fifth year for teachers for whom the usual Master of Arts degree has seemed inappropriate. In Indiana, teachers, supervisors, professors of education, professors and heads of academic English and speech departments, and deans of arts and education met in four annual conferences to plan such a program. At the final conference, Russell M. Cooper, Dean of Arts at the University of South Florida in Tampa, gave an overview of ways of improving the fifth year in teacher education. He recommended that one-third of the program should be directed toward further general education, one-third to professional education, and one-third toward improved academic background for the specific job the individual teacher is to do.⁴¹

Batchelder summarized the conclusions arrived at by the members of the conference:

1. The fifth year should broaden and increase the teacher's knowledge in his teaching fields.
2. It should enrich his cultural background through general education, especially in relation to (a) understanding the concepts of a democratic society, (b) increased skill in communication, (c) greater facility in human relations and group processes, and (d) understanding the function of the school in the community.
3. The fifth year should increase the student's professional competence through (a) better understanding of the history and philosophy of education, (b) critical examination of theory and meth-

⁴¹ Russell M. Cooper, "Improving the Fifth Year in Teacher Education," *Bulletin of the School of Education*, Indiana University, 31 (May, 1955), 10-22.

ods, (c) added work in advanced methods, (d) greater skill in and respect for scientific inquiry in education, (e) added knowledge of the processes of growth and learning, (f) some direct experiences with children, (g) increased power in evaluation of his own achievements and those of his pupils, (h) additional work in guidance, supervision of extracurricular activities, and the use of audiovisual materials, and (i) increased professional consciousness through acquaintance with major professional organizations.

Certain agreements were also reached in the four conferences concerning matters of organization and administration of the program:

1. There should be flexibility enough in the requirements to allow each teacher to select the courses he most needs. This necessitates counseling.
2. Some teaching experience should precede registration for the fifth year.
3. There should be continuity and unity between the requirements of the fifth year and the four undergraduate years.
4. The program should be cooperatively planned by all divisions of the college which are concerned with the education of teachers, by community leaders, and by administrators and supervisors in the public schools.
5. The needs of the *teacher* should be given as much consideration as those of the administrator pursuing graduate study. There should be no marked difference between the requirements set up for elementary and for secondary school teachers.
6. Research work should be encouraged.
7. Teachers should meet requirements for certification in three teaching areas. The fifth year should be required for permanent certification.
8. Standards of scholarship should be high.⁴²

Later in the conference, the groups also met by subject matter areas. The recommendations of the language arts group are of special interest:

⁴² Howard T. Batchelder, "Analysis of Outcomes of the Conferences on the Fifth Year of Teacher Education," *Teachers College Journal*, XXVII (October, 1955), 6-7.

1. There should be a clear goal and pattern in the program, but much flexibility in order to meet the needs of each teacher.
2. Teaching experience should precede the fifth year so that teachers may be sure of their own needs. Records of successes and failures of each teacher should be in the hands of his counselor.
3. The degree should be an M.A.
4. There should be a good balance in the program among general education, professional courses, and an area of academic specialization.
5. The needs of the teacher should supersede traditional requirements.
6. Some language arts work should be required of all teachers, not merely of majors in the field.
7. Standards should be kept up at the graduate level, but prerequisites should be waived for students with good average grades.
8. Fifth year courses should emphasize known research findings in the language arts.⁴³

Teachers colleges are experimenting with the problem of what the fifth year should contain. Oklahoma, for example, in 1954 gave its teachers colleges the right to grant a Master of Teaching degree. The program at Northwestern State College at Alva may be taken as typical. Its objectives are these:

The degree is designed basically to produce master teachers through individual programs of study developed to provide proficiency in general education; subject matter preparation; teaching skill and techniques; sensitivity to professional concepts, ideals, and standards; psychological foundations; and reflective thought.

In arriving at a program of study for each candidate, an advisory committee created for him uses the felt needs of the candidate, needs disclosed through diagnostic techniques, and records of his teaching experience.

Since each candidate shall have at least one year of teaching experience and shall hold a currently valid teaching certificate, the Advanced Professional Program is an opportunity to extend, reinforce, and integrate his techniques, skills, and knowledge in general and specific fields.⁴⁴

⁴³ *Ibid.*, pp. 13-14.

⁴⁴ Northwestern State College, Alva, Oklahoma, *Bulletin* 1958-60.

Thirty-two semester credits are the total number required. The distribution of courses taken must be ten to twenty semester credits in the teaching field of specialization and/or supporting fields, up to eight credits in general education for personal development or other needs, and eight to sixteen credits in professional education including one course each in Measurement and Evaluation, Audiovisual Materials, and Guidance unless taken in the undergraduate program.

The Master of Science and Master of Arts degrees are also offered for elementary school teachers in many colleges and universities, such as Ball State Teachers College at Muncie, Indiana, and Stanford University. The State University of New York College at Buffalo requires for a Master of Science degree in elementary education nine credits in an elementary education workshop or elementary education seminar; twelve hours in academic courses, of which six must be in English and/or social studies; two to six hours in educational research or thesis; and five to nine hours in unrestricted electives.

No student may take more than sixteen credits of education and research out of the thirty-two required for the degree.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions and recommendations emerge from the programs presented in this chapter:

1. In the last ten years the number of elementary school teachers with degrees from four-year colleges has increased by nearly 50 per cent. There is now almost universal agreement on the need of a fifth year of preparation. What should be the nature of the fifth year is a matter for wide experimentation. That the five years should be planned as a continuous program—instead of a four-year program plus a fifth, not as something divorced from and added to what has gone before—seems generally accepted.

2. In direct relationship to the professional roles of the teacher, which are enumerated in the Introduction, the program of preparation for teaching should be planned cooperatively by

members of both professional and academic departments in consultation with public school supervisors and administrators who employ teachers.

3. Students admitted to the program of preparation for teaching should be carefully selected as to intelligence, general academic scholarship, personality, speech, and ability to communicate effectively both orally and in writing.

4. The increasing emphasis upon the teacher's development as a person as well as on his background for teaching has led major national organizations to recommend equal emphasis (1) on general education, (2) on professional education, and (3) on an area or areas of academic specialization. Some colleges prefer a major and one or two minors in academic areas. Others prefer three or four academic minors, one of which may be in English and be required of all prospective teachers.

5. Sophomore courses open to prospective elementary school teachers in general, whether they are majoring in English or not, should be broad, generally cultural courses requiring a limited number of credits rather than long fifteen credit courses in a single field commonly required as basic courses for students majoring in the department.

6. "Broad fields" majors have special value for elementary school teachers because they furnish opportunity to interrelate several disciplines in history, sociology, economics, and literature, for example, in American Studies, or English, speech, journalism, and dramatics in the language arts. Most such programs as now developed for secondary school teachers demand too many credits to be fitted into an elementary teacher's schedule. Special majors need to be created.

7. Multiple minors as substitutes for a single major concentration or one major and two minors may prove especially valuable for elementary teachers. One of these minors, which should be required of all teachers, is in English.

8. Regardless of the schedule of majors and minors, all elementary school teachers should be required to take in addition to freshman English a course in advanced composition; one in the structure, historical development, and social function of the English language; and two in literature, one covering major

writers in American literature and one in English or world masterpieces.

9. Especially significant, also, for all elementary school teachers are adequate courses in speech (such as Fundamentals of Speech, the Oral Interpretation of Literature, Speech Disorders of Children, or Creative Dramatics), and in Children's Literature and Book Selection.

10. Students preparing to teach in the elementary school should have enough undergraduate work in one academic area and preferably in two to be eligible later to pursue graduate courses in them.

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PREVIEW

THE PURPOSE OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

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CHAPTER 3

The Professional Preparation of the Elementary School Teacher

PURPOSE OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

THE IMPORTANCE of a liberal education for the elementary school teacher is clearly set forth in the preceding chapter. A teacher should be intelligent, well read, an example of scholarship to his pupils, and a respected cultural leader in his community. He must also be equipped to draw upon a rich background, to meet new conditions as they arise, and to stimulate a wide variety of interests through his own contagious enthusiasm for learning.

Throughout the last two or three years of his academic program, depending upon whether he is in a four- or five-year course, the future teacher acquires the professional knowledge and begins to develop the understanding, appreciation, and skill essential to educating children during their first eight years in public schools. A carefully planned program in professional education should supplement the teacher's liberal education by preparing him to meet such critical problems as these:

1. How is the purpose of the elementary school different from that of the college or university in which he has pursued his liberal studies?

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2. What differentiates the function of the elementary schools of a democracy from those of nations with other forms of social organization and of government?
3. What principles of child development, clearly established by research, should govern the selection of materials taught and the experiences provided?
4. What principles of learning, likewise clearly established by research, should guide the choice of techniques of teaching and of directing pupil behavior?
5. What differences in initial capacities, social backgrounds, and purposes are characteristic of a cross section of child population of the nation and how can the activities of the classroom be organized to accommodate them?
6. What materials, many of which were not in existence when the prospective teacher was in the elementary school, are best suited to attaining the purposes of education today?

While the teacher is acquiring background in these aspects of educational practice, research, and thinking, he should relate them constantly to his practical experience in an elementary school classroom under expert guidance, first in observing teachers at work, then participating as a teacher's aide, and finally teaching the entire group of children himself.

These major understandings and techniques of professional education cannot be acquired in a hurry. Because the candidate's professional understanding and insights develop gradually over a period of years, many leaders in education believe that professional education is most profitable when it accompanies liberal education over a certain period of time rather than when it is compressed into the last year of a four- or five-year program. Developing an understanding of children, a knowledge that education at the elementary school level involves more than subject matter, and an appreciation of the slow pace of progress in many areas of growth—this development may demand prolonged study, observation of children, and intermittent practice in handling them before the average prospective teacher is ready to assume

responsibility for independent teaching of a class. For this reason, many institutions recommend that work in professional education begin in the third year and that the introduction to the program be gradual. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards speaks decisively on this point in its 1961 report on *New Horizons in Teacher Education*.¹

ALL-COLLEGE OR ALL-UNIVERSITY APPROACH

An integrated program should be more readily achieved if, in accordance with current trends in the preparation of a teacher, both his academic and his professional preparation are guided by a college or university committee comprised of representatives of the academic departments, the department of education, and the central administration.² Such a committee can integrate the programs of general education, academic specialization, and professional education. Where an adequate scheme of integration does not already exist, the department of education may help to create an institution-wide sense of responsibility for the whole program of teacher preparation and urge the appointment of a joint committee. The chief beneficiaries of the good this committee could achieve would be, of course, the students preparing to become teachers.

PROPORTION OF PROFESSIONAL CREDITS

Two widely publicized misconceptions about the preparation of teachers for the public schools involve the nature and the extent of the professional program: first, that throughout their four or five years of college, prospective teachers are required to

¹ NCTEPS, *New Horizons in Teacher Education* (Washington: NEA, 1961), p. 65.

² An example of a plan based upon an established all-institution responsibility for the program of teacher education is described by Dean Lindley J. Stiles of the School of Education of the University of Wisconsin in his address, "The All-Institution Approach to Teacher Education at the University of Wisconsin," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*; Official Report of the Second Bowling Green Conference of NCTEPS (Washington: NEA, 1958), pp. 153-159.

take a major portion of their courses in professional education rather than in academic content; second, that professional education is chiefly concerned with fixed methods of presenting subject matter in the classroom. Neither statement is true in the majority of institutions preparing teachers in this country today.

As noted in Chapter 2, Clark, studying the program of sixty-eight eastern teachers colleges in 1955, found, on the average, less than one-third of the required credits in professional education and more than two-thirds in academic courses.³ The 1961 study of certification requirements in the fifty-two states (counting the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico), made by the Committee on the National Interest of the National Council of Teachers of English, reports that state requirements in professional education for a prospective teacher in the elementary school today range from 16 to 36 credits, the median being 21 semester credits or 17.5 per cent of the candidate's 120 semester credits. Of these credits, 2 to 12 are devoted to student teaching. The median of these is 6.⁴

In an analysis of quantitative requirements in 294 colleges and universities reported by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education in 1958, the median number of semester credits required in professional education for elementary school teachers is 34 or about 28 per cent of the total 120 credits required for graduation.⁵ The range is from 18 to 69. Seventy-two per cent of the institutions reporting appear in the range from 20 to 40 semester credits. Only three require 60 credits or more, and only five require fewer than 20 credits. When one considers that many of these figures include courses in professional content such as music, art, science, or literature for young children, and that all of them include student teach-

³ Leonard H. Clark, "The Curriculum for Elementary Teachers in Sixty-Eight State Teachers Colleges," *Journal of Teacher Education*, VI (June, 1955), 114-117.

⁴ NCTE Committee on the National Interest, James R. Squire, chairman, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1961), p. 45.

⁵ NCATE, "Summary of Requirements in Teacher Education Curricula," *The Education of Teachers: Curriculum Programs*; Official Report of the Kansas Conference of NCTEPS (Washington: NEA, 1959), pp. 180-182.

ing, the number of credits in professional courses required by the average teacher training institution is hardly excessive.

MAJOR ELEMENTS

The many responsibilities of the elementary school teacher both defined and illustrated in Chapter 1 suggest the breadth of program needed in preparing him to teach children from the ages of five to twelve. He must develop a philosophy of education which will help him make up his own mind concerning what education is for in a democracy. He must know how children develop and what are the best means of promoting growth in them. He must understand how best to use subject matter to give children the knowledge, appreciations, and skills which a twentieth-century world demands of them. He must be equipped to select and to use wisely materials and instruments of instruction. He must understand his function in school and community and in the profession of which he will be a part. And in each of these areas, he must have acquired the will to grow and the skills needed to insure his progress.

Perhaps the best way to dispel the notion that professional education consists chiefly of courses in methods is to present the overview of a typical program given by J. T. Kelley of the Florida State Education Department at the Second Bowling Green Conference of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards in 1958:

The content of the professional program cannot be referred to properly as "how to teach," since little of the program can be considered methods courses. The following is a description of a teacher education program in terms of desired outcomes:

1. The professional program should provide the teacher with an understanding of America, the place of schools in the American way of life, the contribution of our schools in the development of the American heritage, and some of the problems of today as they relate to public education. This is classified in the standards of certification as the "social foundations" of education.
2. The professional education program should provide the teacher with an understanding of the growth and development of children and of the learning processes. Each teacher should know what to

expect of a child, should know his activities, and should be able to diagnose his needs. In Florida, this phase of the professional education program is known as the "psychological foundations."

3. The professional education program should provide the teacher with an understanding of his responsibility to the child, to the principal and other members of the faculty, and to the community; a knowledge and understanding of how to manage a classroom, of how to arrange a schedule, of how to evaluate the progress of a child in his grade or subject field; a knowledge of the materials available to him and the school and how to use these materials in teaching situations. This block of professional education is listed as "teaching in the elementary or secondary schools."

4. The professional education program should provide the teacher with an understanding of materials peculiar to his teaching field or fields and with techniques for presenting his particular subject to the child. These materials and techniques change considerably in relation to the age and grade placement of the child. This phase of the program is known as "special methods."

5. The professional education program should provide the teacher with an opportunity to deal with children in an actual classroom situation. This is the practical application of the total education program. In this phase, the would-be teacher has the opportunity to meet parents, to conduct classes, and to understand local situations and school problems. This is known as "internship."⁶

SOCIAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS

The Function of the Public Schools of a Democracy. One statement of the philosophy of education which undergirds our national life is that presented by the President's Commission on National Goals in 1960:

Education is important in any modern society, whatever its political or economic forms. But a society such as ours, dedicated to the worth of the individual, committed to the nurture of free, rational and responsible men and women, has special reasons for valuing education. Our deepest convictions impel us to foster individual fulfillment. We wish each one to achieve the promise that is in him.

⁶ J. T. Kelley, "Regulation and Improvement at the State Level," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*, p. 210.

We wish each one to be worthy of a free society and capable of strengthening a free society.

Education is essential not only to individual fulfillment but to the vitality of our national life. The vigor of our free institutions depends upon educated men and women at every level of the society. And at this moment in history, free institutions are on trial.

Ultimately, education serves all of our purposes—liberty, justice, and all our other aims—but the one it serves most directly is equality of opportunity.

Our devotion to equality does not ignore the fact that individuals differ greatly in their talents and motivations. It simply asserts that each should be enabled to develop to the full, in his own style, and to his own limit. Each is worthy of respect as a human being. This means that there must be diverse programs within the educational system to take care of the diversity of individuals; and that each of these programs should be accorded respect and stature.⁷

John W. Gardner, chairman of the panel which produced the "National Goals in Education" is president of the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. In his own book, called *Excellence: Can We Be Equal and Excellent, Too?*, written since the report, he pursues the subject further:

Some seem to be dreaming of a world in which everyone without exception has talent, taste, judgment, and an unswerving allegiance to excellence. Such dreams are pleasant but unprofitable. . . . The importance of education in modern society is not limited to the higher orders of talent. A complex society is dependent every hour of the day upon the capacity of its people to read and write, to make complex judgments and to act in the light of fairly extensive information. When there is not this kind of base on which to build, modern social and economic developments are simply impossible. And if that base were to disappear suddenly in any complex society, the whole interlocking mechanism would grind to a halt. . . . A broad base of education at lower levels makes modern society possible.⁸

⁷ The President's Commission on National Goals, *Goals for Americans* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), p. 81.

⁸ John W. Gardner, *Excellence: Can We Be Equal and Excellent, Too?* (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1961), pp. xiii and 35.

It is this base with which the elementary school teacher is concerned.

At the same time the elementary school should detect and direct talent and help each child grow within his own uniqueness. Dr. Gardner is not unmindful of this fact. "Human potential must be developed at every level," he reminds the reader, "but we must seek excellence in a context of concern for all."⁹ "We must deal imaginatively and constructively with individual differences. . . . When young people are graduated from high school, we discuss those going on to college as though they were a homogeneous lot, all headed for a similar experience. But the truth is that they are quietly but fairly effectively sorted into different paths."¹⁰

Agnes E. Meyer, at the Deiches Conferences on Education at Johns Hopkins University in 1959, raised another problem to be considered by those who choose elementary school teaching as a career. Her concern is with "our mass society, which is sinking into a state of cultural barbarism too frequently accepted as the inevitable by-product of democratic egalitarianism."

"The strength of any nation," she maintains, "depends primarily on the quality of its citizens, a quality which derives primarily from a stable, integrated social setting."¹¹ The schools, she insists, should be concerned with the social setting in which pupils find themselves and join with sociologists, doctors, the courts, and other agencies in combatting undesirable conditions under which some children live today. Ignoring the community in which the school is set negates learning. Here is an important problem in educational philosophy which the teacher who would fulfill his function as a liaison between school and community must face in his preparation in the "social foundations" of education.

The development, then, of a personal philosophy of education in relation to the place of the schools in a democracy is a sig-

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 74-77.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 66.

¹¹ Agnes E. Meyer, "Education, Sociology, and Science," Introductory Lecture at the Johns Hopkins University Deiches Conference on Education, Baltimore, April 3, 1959. (Mimeographed).

nificant element in the "social foundations" of professional preparation for teaching.

The Importance of the Historical Background of Education. Every teacher needs patience and persistence. He must appreciate the long battle of ideas waged by others before him, developed out of varied philosophies in Europe and America from Socrates to Bode. He must sense the persistence of the same problems through the years and recognize their reappearance under changing conditions from one generation to the next. Some important moments in the history of education in this country help give a realistic picture of the problems involved. Benjamin Franklin established the first American academy in order that boys and girls might learn the English language and its literature as well as Latin and Greek. Then he went off to France and returned to find English forgotten and the Greek and Latin classics strongly entrenched in his English school.¹² Later, in the nineteenth century, the Committee of Ten pledged itself to make English as good a "mental discipline" as Latin if only it were recognized as worthy of study in high school.¹³ In 1899 A. F. Nightengale, superintendent of schools in Chicago and chairman of the Committee on College Entrance requirements of the National Education Association, presented an epoch-making report with this remark: "There is no educational subject before the American people requiring more serious attention, demanding a calmer discussion, greater wisdom, a keener appreciation of the trend of present education, and a loftier spirit of altruism than that which relates to an *American* system of education *which shall be consistent with psychic law from the kindergarten to the graduate school of the university.*"¹⁴ Why, prospective teachers need to ask themselves, is the statement as true in 1961 as it was in 1899?

¹² Elmer E. Brown, *The Making of Our Middle Schools* (New York: Longmans, Green, and Company, 1926), pp. 187-190.

¹³ NEA, *Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies with Reports of the Conferences Arranged by the Committee* (New York: American Book Company, 1894), p. 21.

¹⁴ Report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements of the NEA, *Journal of the Proceedings of the NEA at Its 38th Annual Meeting Held at Los Angeles*, 1899, p. 635.

Why, too, they may well inquire, did Horace Mann stump the state of Massachusetts in 1828 to substitute for Europe's "common school for the common people" (with special ones for the elite) "schools in common" for all the children of the United States? These are but a few of the philosophical questions which must always underlie decisions concerning public education in a democracy; hence, they are in the first category of requirements in the preparation of teachers in "the social foundations" of education.

PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS

Understanding Child Development. Before the prospective teacher is asked to take responsibility for directing learning, he should first understand clearly the sequence of growth in children as defined by psychologists, sociologists, and pediatricians. He should recognize that although growth in these areas cannot be hurried or forced, it can be nurtured by the stimulation afforded by the classroom environment and by appropriate techniques of teaching and of learning. It likewise depends upon the mutual understanding of parents, teachers, and pupils.

What these techniques are has been established by research in many areas, research with which the teacher should be familiar if he is to direct learning wisely and to explain his procedures to the community. The teacher must be sufficiently intelligent concerning research techniques to judge the adequacy of studies which will continue to appear as long as he is in the classroom, and ultimately he should be able to participate in such research himself.

The study of child development will reveal to him the complex nature of behavior, its social, emotional, and psychological bases, and the teacher's need for taking all of them into account.

Recognizing and Caring for Individual Differences. Although the stages of children's growth are sequential, individual differences in rate and aspects of growth vary greatly from pupil to pupil. Study of how to detect and care for these differences is an

important element in the teacher's preparation. The combination of (1) study of the results of laboratory research and (2) observation of the behavior of pupils in the classroom will help the teacher to accept differences among pupils as being inevitable and desirable rather than as something to be deplored. Such evidence as the following will help him to attack his problems wisely in the classroom: Division of a class into three tracks according to intelligence and achievement reduces the spread of differences only 14 per cent.¹⁵ A "homogeneous" class is always made up of "unique" individuals.¹⁶ The chief way to care for individuals is either as individuals or in small groups which shift with the nature of the difficulties diagnosed and the task to be done. For some classroom work, grouping on the basis of strengths and interests is quite as important as grouping on the basis of needs and weaknesses. If such procedures are to become real to the novice, they must be demonstrated in the classroom as well as substantiated by research. Studies of the characteristics of gifted and slow-learning pupils and of how each group learns best are also available to direct the thinking and practice of the teacher. How the differences affect learning is demonstrated by such evidence as the following: "In the mechanics of English and reading comprehension, almost a complete range of elementary school achievement is found in each grade above the primary; and the promotion practices of schools do not affect this range."¹⁷ The aim is to help each child to live up to his own potentialities and to assess his progress in terms of his powers. In the process, originality and creativity are as crucial as skills in the future of the child and the nation. So too is the ability to think and to work with others of not only similar powers but also widely disparate backgrounds and future responsibilities. In his Phi Beta Kappa address at Berkeley, Thomas Mann at-

¹⁵ W. Wayne Wrightstone, *Class Organization for Instruction* (What Research Says to the Teacher) (Washington: NEA, 1957).

¹⁶ Lee J. Cronbach, *Educational Psychology* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1954), p. 231.

¹⁷ Robert H. Beck, Walter W. Cook, and Nolan C. Kearney, *Curriculum in the Modern Elementary School* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), pp. 32-35; 42-50.

tributed Hitler's success to Germany's educating separately the "doers and the thinkers."¹⁸

Understanding the Processes of Learning. Third, the teacher needs to understand the processes of learning; for example, he should know that the most important factor in learning is motivating it toward goals meaningful to the learner. He must clearly define his methods of attacking each problem and continuously evaluate their success. This is equally true whether the process be critical thinking, group planning and action, or mastering a particular skill through practice on correct responses. The teacher must recognize *the teaching of skills in use* as a means to motivation. Research in learning is as extensive as that in child development. Knowledge of its findings and observation of the practical application of these findings to classroom tasks should be part of every course in the methodology of teaching. Pupils' growth in all subjects progresses through the development of concepts, moving from the concrete to the abstract, and through applying generalizations to situations having meaning for the learner.

Although, as indicated earlier, the teacher must recognize and nurture the uniqueness of each child, the teacher should also understand the influence of group experience. Essential in a democracy, group experience enriches individual life, stimulates self-confidence and self-respect, and encourages individual acceptance of values in the culture.

Organizing a class into a unified working group, teaching pupils to define a problem and to propose and evaluate suitable suggestions for solving it, assigning to them responsibilities according to their interests and capabilities, helping them to carry out the tasks assigned and share results, and evaluating these procedures—all are parts of the democratic process which must be implemented in the elementary school. Such classroom work requires use of a wide range of pupils' talents, stimulates diversity in learning, and has profound effects socially and intellectually. Because language is both a personal and a social tool, it inevitably involves human relationships. Thus the teacher must realize

¹⁸ Thomas Mann, "Thought and Life," *The Key Reporter*, VI (Autumn, 1941), 1 and 5.

his dual responsibility of helping each pupil develop both his individual talents and his ability to participate effectively in group processes.¹⁹

SPECIAL METHODS OF TEACHING ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUBJECTS— THE LANGUAGE ARTS

The psychological principles of learning, of child development, and of individual differences apply to all subjects of study. They are commonly taught in courses variously entitled Educational Psychology, General Methods, or the Psychology of Learning and of Child Development. In addition, the candidate is usually required to take special methods courses in the language arts, in reading, in social studies, in science, and in arithmetic, together with professional subject matter and methods courses combined in elementary school music and art. Children's literature is frequently related to this group of offerings.

Some institutions have attempted to integrate learning by uniting individual methods courses into a single course meeting daily for a year and sometimes called the Child and the Curriculum. It is focused on the growth of children and is related to the college student's experience as a teacher's aide.

Both the single integrated methods course and the separate subject courses present values and problems. The values of the integrated plan as implemented in many schools are these: the study is focused on the child as a whole; the interrelationships of subject matter and methods are clearly delineated; and the philosophy behind the teaching and learning is made apparent to the candidate. The problems are, however, that few college professors of education are equally proficient, interested, and conversant with research, materials, and trends in all subject areas. Inevitably, students tend to be indoctrinated with one point of view, that of the person responsible for the course. Even though other persons are brought in as resources to enrich the

¹⁹ See also NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum, *Language Arts Today's Children*, NCTE Curriculum Series, Volume II (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954).

course, the one point of view predominates. Where the methods teachers also supervise the same students in their observation, participation, and student teaching, the problem is very clear. Consistency in point of view and experience can be valuable, but it can also be limiting.

Methods courses in the separate subjects tend to be taught by persons who specialize in the content and teaching of those subjects. Not only can each instructor more easily keep informed on research, materials, and trends in his area but frequently contributes to them. The prospective teacher is exposed to varying points of view related to these subjects and to elementary education in general, as he will find these in the schools in which he will later teach. Each methods teacher emphasizes the psychology of teaching and learning as it relates to his subject; he clarifies the place and relationship of the subject in the total curriculum. The weakness of this plan is that much of the integration of subjects into the total program is left to the student. Possibly the relationship of these to the growth and development of the child may be less clear unless the subjects and relationships are later integrated in student teaching.

College teachers of methods vary in their attitudes toward this plan. Some prefer to teach the total integrated program; others prefer to specialize in a single area or a limited number of closely related areas so that they develop their own competence more thoroughly and consequently may also achieve recognition as authorities in their fields. If the school is one in which recognition and promotion are somewhat dependent upon writing and research, the college teacher tends to prefer to develop an area of specialization.

Two-thirds of the 569 institutions responding to the National Council's questionnaire in the *National Interest* study required the prospective elementary school teacher to take 5 semester credits or fewer in Methods of Teaching and the Content of Reading and the Language Arts exclusive of children's literature. A fourth of them required 6 to 10 semester credits, and 3 per cent required more than 11.²⁰ In view of the current criticism of results of teaching usage, spelling, and writing in the elementary

²⁰ NCTE, *op. cit.*, pp. 57-58.

schools, the amount of time devoted to methods of teaching the language arts in the majority of the training colleges responding to the questionnaire seems lamentably small when coupled with the evidence already presented in Chapter 2 that less than 6 per cent of the colleges require work in the English language (roughly one-third have a course called grammar and usage) and one-fifth require no composition beyond the freshman level.²¹ These facts are especially significant because the language arts in the elementary school are both an end in themselves and means to ends in all other subjects of study.

The Content of the Methods Course in the Language Arts. The methods course in the language arts at Indiana University may be taken as typical of those which include all four of the language arts. This program extends throughout the year and includes the following major points:

- A sketch of the history of the English language
- The significance of language in the life of an individual
- The development of language in young children
- The contributions of the nursery school and kindergarten to language development
- The development of listening skills
- The improvement and development of oral language in the primary grades
- Oral language during the later elementary school years
- Vocabulary building
- Teaching the use of written language in the elementary school
 - Steps in development from dictation to independent writing
 - Creative and personal writing
 - Practical writing and matters of form
 - Methods of evaluating writing
- Teaching manuscript and cursive forms of handwriting
- Teaching spelling
- Problems of language usage, capitalization, and punctuation
- Planning a developmental program in reading
 - The background of readiness for reading

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 54-55.

- Research in the beginning stages of learning to read
- The stages of rapid growth in power and interest
- The refinement of reading skills
- The teaching of study techniques
- Promoting of individualized reading
- Problems of diagnosis and therapy in special cases of disability
- Literature in the language arts program—selection and teaching
 - Special techniques of reading literature
 - Development of tastes and interests
 - Dramatic interpretation
 - Oral reading and choral speaking
- Evaluation of the language arts program

As shown in Chapter 1, all of these subjects require extensive treatment; all are essential in elementary school teaching. The language development of each child is his means of acquiring an education. The elementary school teacher uses language development, also, as a means of contributing to a pupil's personal and social competence, knowing the close relationship which exists between the development of personality and the ability to communicate. Promoting among prospective teachers increased understanding of these relationships is a special concern of the college teacher of methods in the language arts. Further details of the program may be inferred from the outline of purposes and skills to be promoted in the elementary school which appears in Chapter 1.

Two problems currently puzzling teachers of the language arts, about which they constantly seek help at workshops and national meetings, are how to evaluate compositions and how to teach Modern English grammar. In methods courses and student teaching under expert direction, the prospective teacher needs more specific help than he is receiving with both of these problems. He does not always understand the import of the question: "Are you a proofreader or a teacher?"²² He needs more of the kind of help presented in the Bronxville study reported in *They All Want to Write*.²³ He needs also to examine the relationship

²² Ida A. Jewett, "Samples from a Composition Teacher's Script," *Teachers College Record*, XXXIX (October, 1937), 16-24.

²³ Alvina T. Burrows, June D. Ferebee, et al., *They All Want to Write* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952).

between the processes of thinking and success in writing.

Many teachers know that the old labelling of forms and filling in of blanks in the study of grammar and usage have been discredited by research, but they apparently do not know what else to do.²⁴ Special studies are needed which will focus attention upon the basic elements in linguistics which can be appropriately taught in the elementary school, followed by cooperative research in methods of presentation which may have meaning for young learners.

The Selection of Content and Method Through Application of Principles. A major concern of the preparation of teachers is related to what James Harvey Robinson called "the humanizing of knowledge." "How is knowledge," he asks, "to be so ordered and presented as to produce permanent effects and an attitude of mind appropriate to our time and its perplexities?"²⁵

In his book, *The Process of Education*, Bruner discusses important factors of learning and teaching. Both learner and teacher must take into account, he stresses, the structure of a whole subject and the relationship to it of even an item in a daily lesson.²⁶ It is not enough for the teacher merely to have acquired knowledge. He must know how to select not only what is suitable within the structure of the subject but also what is suitable for the elementary school and the growth of individual boys and girls. Selecting in accordance with specific goals and specific situations is a major function of the teacher.

The selection proceeds by the method of logical thinking described by the Harvard report on *General Education in a Free Society*, as a quality characteristic of the liberally educated man. "Logical thinking," says the report, "is the capacity to extract universal truths from particular cases and, in turn, to infer par-

²⁴ Harry Greene and Walter T. Petty, *Developing Language Skills in the Elementary School* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1959).

C. W. Hunnicutt and William J. Iverson, *Research in the Three R's* (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1958), pp. 316-346.

Robert C. Pooley, *Teaching English Grammar* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957), pp. 33-53.

²⁵ James Harvey Robinson, *The Humanizing of Knowledge* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Company, 1927), p. 67.

²⁶ Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960), pp. 17-32.

ticulars from general laws." ²⁷ Logical, relational, and imaginative thinking are at the heart of the program in methods as it proceeds by principle rather than by pattern. Lifting subject matter out of the categories of the scholar and into the sequence of the growth of children is a major function of such courses. Methods of procedure change with increased understanding of mental processes and the motivation of learning, but the need for applying general principles to specific situations remains throughout the professional life of the teacher.

METHODS OF TEACHING READING— A RECENT INVESTIGATION

Methods courses in reading are commonly taught apart from those in the language arts because reading skills are somewhat differentiated in various subjects of study. Under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, Harvard University has recently conducted a field study of teacher preparation in methods of teaching reading in seventy-four colleges representing all sections of the United States. "Discussion with the college instructors in reading was centered on questions about the foundational concepts, basic attitudes, and essential skills that they were attempting to promote in their courses, and on their means of implementing these general objectives of instruction by way of content or subject matter, instructional materials and techniques and in student learning experiences." ²⁸

Objectives of the Course. In general, the stated objectives of courses in methods of teaching reading in the seventy-four colleges were these:

An appreciation for and an understanding of language in the child's life.

The acceptance of the teaching of reading as one of the crucial responsibilities of the elementary school teacher.

Recognition of the importance of reading achievement to school

²⁷ Harvard Committee on General Education, *General Education in a Free Society* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1945), pp. 65-67.

²⁸ Mary C. Austin, *The Torch Lighters: Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961), p. 39.

success, personal development, intelligent participation in a democratic society.

Understanding of the interrelationships among various phases of the language arts.

Insight into the nature of the reading process and its relation to principles of learning and child development.

Understanding of the constituent elements and organization of the total development program in reading in the elementary school.

Special insight into the reading program at the chosen grade level of practice.

Recognition of and provision for individual differences in learning among children.

Knowledge of a wide variety of materials and techniques of instruction for specific learning outcomes.

Skill in applying materials and techniques of instruction to insure maximum reading growth for all children.

Knowledge of techniques used in evaluating outcomes of instruction in reading.

Acquaintance with the professional literature and research in the field of reading.²⁹

Problems in Preparation for Teaching Reading. Instructors were frank to say that in the limited time at their disposal, they found it necessary to emphasize mainly the techniques of reading in primary grades. Initial courses tend to neglect (1) problems of the diagnosis and treatment of reading disabilities, (2) differentiated teaching materials and techniques to meet individual needs, and (3) the whole array of study skills in the intermediate grades, including critical reading.

Investigations of the relation between the course in reading methods and the experience of student teaching revealed many problems, such as lack of control by the colleges of the curriculum or methods used in the public school classrooms where the teaching and observation are done, supervision of teaching by college personnel not connected with the methods program, lack of authority on the part of the college to select cooperating teachers,

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 41.

who tend to be volunteers, and inadequate recognition financially or professionally for those cooperating teachers who do excellent work in supervision. This general problem will be further discussed under the program in student teaching.³⁰

Recommendations of the Study. A list of twenty-two recommendations came out of the Harvard study of reading in the schools, eight of which seem particularly pertinent to this discussion:

1. Selective admission of students to the teacher education program is imperative.
2. Senior faculty members who do much research and devote themselves primarily to graduate students should have a part in teaching the undergraduate methods courses.
3. More emphasis should be placed on reading for the intermediate and upper grades.
4. Prospective teachers should have more acquaintance with modern methods of teaching, such as use of television and teaching machines, and some knowledge of the issues involved in conflicting opinions concerning their value.
5. Whether reading is taught as a separate course or as a part of an integrated course in the language arts or in a general methods block, the class time devoted to it should be equivalent to at least three semester credit hours.
6. More emphasis should be placed in the course in reading methods upon research techniques and the interpretation of research.
7. The professional staff of the college should be so augmented that the teacher of methods may observe and confer with his students during student teaching to observe the results of his own instruction and to consult with the cooperating teacher and the administrative personnel in the public schools used.
8. Steps should be taken to improve the method of selection of cooperating teachers, to give them academic recognition commensurate with their importance in the program of teacher preparation, to seek their cooperation in the formulation of practice teaching programs, in related seminars, and in the final evalua-

³⁰ See pp. 118-122.

tion of student performance, and to insure them adequate financial remuneration for their services.³¹

Although the Harvard reading study is based chiefly upon the opinions of reading experts, its findings are presented here in considerable detail in order to show the need of research into the problems raised by the investigation.

READING AND THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

Neither the reading experts nor the directors of research involved in the Harvard study mentioned the problem of lack of materials for personal and supplementary reading in elementary school libraries. Only one-third of the elementary schools of this country have libraries.³² Some that have libraries have very few books, and even those with books in them frequently can't get the children out of the classrooms into the library! However, the present situation represents improvement over conditions which existed even ten years ago. In 1957 the American Association of School Librarians, a division of the American Library Association, invited some twenty professional organizations, including the National Council of Teachers of English, to assist in the preparation of a set of standards for school library services and expenditures to be used throughout the United States. The minimum annual book budget agreed upon, exclusive of that allotted for reference reading and a professional book collection for teachers, was \$4.00 to \$6.00 per pupil, with slight variation for schools with enrollments of fewer than 250 pupils. Their concept of library services is defined as follows: "A school library program means instruction, service, and activity throughout the school rather than merely within the four walls of the library quarters—a service rendered to teachers as well as pupils, and including supplementary materials, equipment for listening and viewing, reference services, and guidance for personal reading."³³

³¹ Mary C. Austin, *op. cit.*, pp. 141-157.

³² USOE, *Public School Library Statistics, 1958-59* (Washington: Dept. of HEW, October, 1960).

³³ AASL, *Standards for School Library Programs* (Chicago, Ill.: ALA, 1960), pp. 14-26.

These nationwide standards should be emphasized in all courses in reading methods and in children's literature. Moreover, they should be regarded as minimal standards which must ultimately be increased if children's literacy is to approach the needs of our time.

CURRENT ISSUES IN THE LANGUAGE ARTS

Instructors in teacher education programs need to inform prospective teachers about current educational controversies and major research projects which may influence the content and methodology introduced in tomorrow's elementary classrooms. By assessing current practices and evaluating new proposals critically, teachers may be awakened to the realization that they live in an era of change and that today's elementary teacher perhaps best serves his profession if he continually relates the most promising of the new proposals to the most thoroughly tested of the old. Above all, the beginning teacher needs to understand that teaching will improve only as schools continually seek to modify and strengthen their programs. Every teacher therefore has an important obligation to be familiar with current developments affecting elementary education. At the present time, for example, the beginning teacher should be informed especially regarding the diverse views being expressed about teaching the language arts in the following areas:

1. *Issues Concerning the Teaching of Reading.* Continuously called upon to answer questions and interpret practice concerning the teaching of reading, the elementary teacher must understand what is meant by a "basal reading" program and how most such programs attempt to embrace a complex group of word-attack skills, rather than a single "look-and-say" approach as charged by many critics. However, familiarity with the charges and the concerns of many individuals about a planned program of phonics instruction seems important, as does basic understanding of the approaches recommended by those who advocate greater attention to independent reading. Moreover, elementary teachers should learn that modern linguists, although agreeing

to some extent with the criticism of existing programs, advocate not adoption of conventional phonics programs, based on the English alphabet, but greater attention to the sound structure of the language as determined by phonemic analysis. Teachers should also be aware of the growing concern about the lack of attention in some elementary readers to a variety of sentence patterns.³⁴

2. *Issues Concerning Language Study in the Elementary School.* Current research studies by Strickland, Loban, and others, coupled with the increasing interest of American linguists in elementary education, raise numerous questions concerning programs in oral and written language. The importance of devoting greater attention to oral skills and to experiences with varied sentence patterns seems to be suggested. One topic being carefully discussed is the extent to which elementary programs in the intermediate grades should incorporate the beginnings of a formal study of the English language and its structure, as distinct from providing only for experiences in using oral and written English. Teachers need to discuss such questions and to learn to consult research in the area.

3. *Issues Concerning Children's Literature.* Another problem causing concern is that many children are having little contact with literature. Some critics question the quality and adequacy of selections in modern readers; many would advocate extensive independent reading in a great variety of materials; not a few,

³⁴ For example, through reading, discussion, or lectures by instructors, prospective elementary teachers should become familiar with the substance of publications expressing a variety of views, such as *Learning to Read: A Report of a Conference of Reading Experts* (Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1962); Ruth G. Strickland, "The Language of Elementary School Children: Its Relationship to the Language of Reading Textbooks and the Quality of Reading of Selected Children," *Bulletin of the School of Education*, Indiana University, XXXVIII: 4 (July, 1962); Clarence Barnhart and Leonard Bloomfield, *Let's Read: A Linguistic Approach* (Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1962); Robert S. Hall, Jr., *Sound and Spelling in English* (Philadelphia: Chilton Press, 1962); and recommendations on reading published by such diverse groups as the International Reading Association, the Council for Basic Education, the Foundation for Reading Reform, as well as the National Council of Teachers of English. These publications serve only as illustrations. In any given year newly published reports will serve the purpose.

especially in the high schools and colleges, have expressed concern lest familiar myths, folk tales, and children's classics be neglected. One study indicated that only 6 per cent of the time of the primary teacher was devoted to the teaching of literature and even less thereafter in the later grades.³⁵ Here are issues which all elementary teachers need to consider.

These suggest only three areas of controversy and discussion about which prospective teachers need to be informed. Issues in other areas of the curriculum also need attention, and new problems will arise from time to time in the elementary language arts. What is essential is that teacher education programs attempt to develop in prospective teachers a readiness to consider new practices and new content and a willingness to reexamine the old.

STUDENT TEACHING AND THE INTERNSHIP

Student teaching is the culminating experience in the preparation of teachers; it integrates the academic background of the teacher with professional knowledge and skills and makes educational psychology, sociology, and processes of teaching "come alive." It also gives the prospective teacher the feeling of at last belonging to a profession.

Amount of Time Devoted to Student Teaching. A survey of four-year programs in 369 of the 410 institutions which are members of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education indicates that the preferred time for student teaching is during the senior year, when most students do either full-time or half-time teaching under supervision for one school term. Three colleges give full-time teaching for one year and eleven give half-time teaching for the same period. The half-time teaching for a full year enables the candidate to change schools and grade levels, thereby getting broader background of experience. On the other hand, it does not give the student the feeling of

³⁵ Dora V. Smith, *Evaluating Instruction in English in Elementary Schools*; Report of the National Conference on Research in English (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1941), pp. 25 and 48.

complete responsibility for the class throughout the school day. In 65 per cent of the colleges, students take no other courses while they are doing student teaching. The usual number of credits received in the course is 6, though the amount of credit varies from 5 to 15 or 16.³⁶

Experiences Provided in Student Teaching. Guided by a superior cooperating teacher, the candidate should ideally have these experiences in student teaching:

- Planning daily lessons
- Adapting methods to purposes and situations
- Planning longer units of work
- Helping children become proficient in group behavior and self-discipline
- Diagnosing pupils' learning difficulties and providing for individual differences
- Providing for individual independent work
- Using group processes
- Helping both gifted and slow learners
- Using community resources and audiovisual materials
- Making audiovisual materials
- Evaluating children's learning.³⁷

Textbooks prepared to guide student teachers usually add chapters on the teacher's professional responsibilities, his relations with the community, and on an established national code of ethics, such as that of the National Education Association.

A few colleges are fortunate enough to be able to furnish resident teaching centers in various communities throughout the state for their student teaching program, which is under the direction of a university staff member who, along with the students, maintains a residence in the community. Michigan State University has such a program, described in its bulletin as follows:

³⁶ Asahel D. Woodruff, *Student Teaching Today*, The AACTE Study Series (Washington: AACTE, 1960), p. 31.

³⁷ John U. Michaelis and Enoch Dumas, *Student Teaching in the Elementary School* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960).

Michigan State University provides for laboratory experiences through local school systems. Each prospective teacher is able to profit from a realistic educational experience which would be impossible to duplicate in a campus school. Each prospective teacher spends one full term working in a particular school system. He lives in the community and is assigned to teach with one or two supervising teachers during this term. His responsibility is viewed broadly and includes involvement in civic and community undertaking and after-school work with boys and girls. He finds out by living the life of a teacher, just what the job of a teacher is.³⁸

The Internship. The Michigan State University program resembles in character the so-called internship which many colleges offer under similar conditions in the fifth year in the professional program for teachers. The report of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *New Horizons for the Teaching Profession*, envisions an internship at the graduate level with monetary compensation and under the joint supervision of the college and the public schools employing interns. It is viewed as an added service for those who have already shown special competence in their undergraduate study.

Under the joint supervision of the college and the schools, considerations such as the following should govern the internship:

The internship is held to be a privilege, not a right.

The intern must show qualifications for teaching in the given area or at the given level.

He should meet all requirements (except experience) which might be set for any candidate for a regular teaching position in the given situation.

During the internship the student assumes full responsibility (under guidance) for from one-half to three-fourths of a teach-

³⁸ Michigan State University Publication, *Catalog Issue*. 1961-62. (East Lansing: The University, 1961.) A complete description of this program and its setup appears in *Full-Time Student Teaching*, by William V. Hicks and Clare C. Walker, published in 1958 by the Michigan State University Press. Dr. Hicks is coordinator of the program.

ing load, thus providing opportunity *to study the total range of the teacher's work.*

The intern should receive monetary compensation proportionate to his teaching load and in harmony with the salary schedule for beginning teachers.

The purpose is to assure a high level of competence through providing opportunity for complete responsibility of the educator's role under guidance, with parallel advanced study. The internship also provides further demonstration of proficiency.³⁹

The Need for a Fifth and Sixth Year. Until more substantial evidence is available, *New Horizons* goes on to say, teacher training institutions should experiment with varied patterns of internship. One such pattern would be a five-year unified undergraduate program in which the fifth year would be an internship leading to the bachelor's degree and a first-year salary differential to recognize extension of work in depth at the undergraduate level. A second pattern might be a five-year unified program with half-time in the fifth year given to an internship and the other half to advanced study applicable toward a graduate degree. A still different pattern and one toward which the profession may gradually move is a six-year unified program with the sixth year providing internship opportunity and leading to the master's degree.

Chapter 2, in discussing the academic preparation of elementary school teachers, has already presented examples of recent five-year programs. Stanford University (pp. 84-86) emphasizes extended general education and 25 additional quarter credits in one area of academic instruction. The professional program is divided between 26 undergraduate and 47 graduate quarter credits in education, including 16 in directed teaching. Every student must have 32 quarter credits in English. Individuals may acquire 25 credits more if they choose English as their area of concentration. At Stanford the student cannot qualify for a professional certificate until the end of the fifth year.

³⁹ NCTEPS, *New Horizons in Teacher Education*, pp. 71-72.

The recommended fifth year in the teachers colleges (pp. 86-89) also stresses more general education, a broader base of knowledge in various teaching fields, and courses adding to professional competences attained at the undergraduate level, more work in research and evaluation, increased efficiency in special areas such as the use of audiovisual aids, and increased consciousness of teaching as a profession. This program recommends a generous number of electives, giving enough flexibility for individual teachers to pursue work in areas in which they and their supervisors feel they need greater competence. In this program, candidates may go out to teach at the end of the fourth year, but the fifth year is required for permanent certification.

These and other patterns need to be explored and experimentally tested, as do various ways of organizing the total design of programs for preparing professional educators.

IMPROVING THE PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM

Efforts to improve the program in teacher education have centered in three practical problems:

1. How to bring about a closer relationship between theory and practice in teaching by integrating, so far as possible, courses in philosophy and history of education, in child development and the psychology of learning, and in special methods of teaching various subjects with classroom observation and direct experience with children.

2. How to give the student considerably more practice in the classroom by gradual induction over a two-year period through observation of demonstration lessons and daily classroom instruction, through experience as a teacher's aide, through student teaching during the senior year, and finally, through an internship in the fifth year or the second half of the senior year. During such an internship the student lives in a community, has full responsibility for a class, participates in professional and community activities, and in some instances is paid for his services by the local school.

3. How to acquaint students with recent innovations in

methods of teaching, such as the use of television, plans for cooperative teaching which utilize special abilities of different teachers, and use of learning machines and programmed teaching, this instruction to be accompanied by careful study of the values and limitations of each for a variety of goals in education.

All three of these problems are inherent in recent observations concerning the outcomes of a truly professional education; for example, "A professional person is one who, because of his breadth and depth of understanding and his skill in thinking, is able to make judgments in problem situations where values as well as technical operations are involved."⁴⁰

INTEGRATION OF THEORY AND PRACTICE

The problems of integrating theory and practice in teaching are complicated by the rigidity of a college schedule. Obviously, efforts to promote observation and teaching during a single hour sandwiched in between other classes unrelated to professional obligations or between extracurricular activities have been unrealistic and unsatisfactory. Hence much experimentation is being done with so-called "blocks" of teaching, in which several consecutive hours are set aside in the student's day for concentration upon the professional program. In arranging this kind of schedule, an all-university or all-college committee could be of great service.

The Problem of Proliferation of Courses. Such integration should also help solve the problem of the "duplication and proliferation" of courses in education. This problem also affects college departments other than education. Reinforcement or deepening of understanding differs, however, from mere duplication of content. For example, the following sequence of courses is common in four-year programs in English: (1) the History of English Literature from Beowulf to Shaw, (2) Nineteenth Century English Literature, (3) Principles of English Poetry, (4) Browning and Tennyson. Each of these courses may deepen the student's understanding and build upon what has gone

⁴⁰ AACTE, *Teacher Education for a Free People*, edited by Donald P. Cottrell (Washington: AACTE, 1956), p. 184.

before. Each may reinforce the other and broaden appreciation of influences and literary types or figures. Similarly, a series of courses in education could do likewise: (1) the General Introductory Course in Education, involving some psychology, (2) the Psychology of Learning, and (3) Caring for Individual Differences. As in English, each course may have its own body of basic research and its own application of general principles. The planning committee should determine which courses develop new facets of a subject and reorganize those that merely duplicate other courses.

Development of a Variety of Plans. Colleges and universities have tried different plans of integrating aspects of the program in professional education.

University of Wisconsin. The present University of Wisconsin program provides in the junior year a ten-credit sequence in Curriculum and Instruction in the Elementary School and parallel with it a course in The Child: His Nature and His Needs (three semester credits) and another in The Nature and Direction of Learning (three semester credits). In the course in curriculum and instruction six to eight weeks are devoted to specific instruction in teaching the language arts and the same to the teaching of reading, together with continuous attention to students' own skills in handwriting, language, composition, and knowledge of children's literature. The rest of the course covers other subjects of the elementary school curriculum, the entire program being handled by the same instructor. Most of the students elect three credits in children's literature either in the Department of Education or in the Library School.

The twelve to sixteen weeks of instruction in reading and related language arts are tied throughout the year to the courses in child development and learning, where the foundation studies in language development are reviewed. At the same time, the students have continuous experience with children in the public schools, at first assisting an expert teacher and eventually assuming full responsibility for teaching. In addition, senior students have a "block" semester devoted entirely to professional work, during which they spend ten weeks in full-time teaching in a cooperating school in some district or town. They are strongly encouraged to live there and become active members of the

school community. During this term, students have a five-week workshop before going out for their student teaching and another week following this practical experience for the development of their teaching units, the preparation of teaching materials, and for evaluation.

University of Miami (Florida). The University of Miami has instituted a Teacher-Aide Junior Block, composed of five courses in methods of language arts, reading, social studies, science, and arithmetic, for which the students register concurrently during one semester of the junior year. Each staff member assigned to the Junior Block is a specialist in the subject and the method which he teaches. Coordination is accomplished through frequent meetings of the staff, sharing assignments, materials, plans and syllabi, and through the supervision of the teacher aides.

During the first third of the semester, the block meets three hours per day four days a week. During these four days, each instructor makes a presentation of two or three periods in length during time allotted to him in the schedule. On the fifth day each student serves the entire day as a teacher aide in a local elementary school. During the next six weeks he spends all day five days a week acting as a teacher aide. Each instructor supervises thirteen to fourteen students. He has weekly seminars with them while they are doing full-time work as teacher aides. He also visits each student two or three times during this period. For the last third of the semester the students are back on the campus full time. This plan closely relates methods of teaching to observation and practical experience.

"This program," the staff wishes to emphasize, "is part of the preparation for internship and in *no* way is considered to be internship." The Teacher-Aide Junior Block provides the student and the university faculty opportunities for evaluating a "readiness" or "aptitude" for teaching. It also serves as an introduction to school organization, classroom organization, school services, and professional obligations to be considered as part of teaching responsibility.⁴¹

New York University. At New York University the sequence

⁴¹ University of Miami, Mimeographed Instructions to Students.

of courses related to the language arts begins with the Freshman Core Course in Communications, followed by enough credits in core electives to total ten semester credits in English. Certain professional courses under the heading of Educational Theory and Application include intensive work in the junior and senior years on such matters as the emotional needs of children, the values children hold, and how to help them clarify and reconstruct those values. In addition, the prospective teachers learn to identify and deal with problems involved in helping children to learn. Another professional area is that of Specialization, which includes a block of time devoted to Child Development and the Program for Early Childhood and Elementary Education, totaling twelve semester credits spent in general curriculum and child development. One-third of this twelve-credit sequence, which extends through the year, is devoted to the language arts, including children's literature, reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The instructors demonstrate and illustrate by means of the students' own activities as well as by use of films, observation of work with children, and in student teaching during one of the two semesters. This work is followed up during student teaching in the senior year.

Queens College. An integrated program in methods of teaching is used at Queens College in New York because the faculty believes that children's development in reading, writing, social studies, and other areas is best achieved through emphasis on living together in the classroom rather than on the study of separate subjects. They find that college students better understand this point of view if their methods courses are based on this same principle of integrated learning. The one nonintegrated language arts area is children's literature, which the students are required to take as a separate course. Classroom participation is an integral part of the study of methods. Interestingly enough, cooperating teachers appear more willing to allow students to guide the children's experiences in the language arts than in some of the other areas. Most students have opportunities to help children with reading, spelling, and creative writing. During the period of student teaching which follows in the senior year, the students' activities cover the entire range of the language arts,

including creative dramatics, the school newspaper, the children's library, and the reading clinic.

University of Cincinnati. An integrated program of methods of teaching is in effect at the University of Cincinnati also. There the kindergarten-primary students spend three two-hour periods per week for two semesters in integrated methods courses. Important parts of these classes are the "laboratory" extensions of them. Parallel with the classes, the student gives two half-days each week to observation and participation with carefully selected teachers whose classes are located in schools which could be considered representative of low, middle, and high socioeconomic levels.

The integrated language arts work is concentrated in one semester of the two-semester sequence. In this campus methods class the student utilizes his experience in observation and participation as he listens to a faculty lecturer and watches a student or professor stage a demonstration lesson suitable for development in classrooms comprised of children who represent the various strata of our society. Frequently, the student is asked to participate in group discussions in which the kindergarten-primary faculty members are resource persons.

The integrated methods class offered for students interested in teaching in the intermediate grades differs in one respect. While similar activities require that the student utilize the experience acquired from the observation-participation assignment scheduled for the same semester as his methods class, the organization of the subject matter differs from that of the kindergarten-primary class. In this class the student's attention is focused upon the teaching of reading during six periods per week for eight weeks while the teaching of listening, speaking, English usage, spelling, and creative writing occupy the remaining time of the semester.

In the two semesters which follow completion of the integrated methods course, students in both programs are treated similarly. During one of the two semesters they complete student teaching assignments in public school classrooms under the supervision of professors who have taught the methods classes. Seminars scheduled with student teaching assignments provide many additional

opportunities for the professors to follow up lessons staged in the integrated methods courses.

With so many different programs in operation throughout the country, research studies are urgently needed to provide scientific evidence of the results of various arrangements in this crucial aspect of the education of teachers.

SUPERVISED CLASSROOM EXPERIENCE

The Campus and the Public School as Laboratories for Student Teaching. If the student is teaching in a campus school under expert teachers especially trained in supervision, he should become adept at many of these tasks. However, campus schools, in spite of their efforts to the contrary, frequently have a selected student body. In them the prospective teacher usually finds demonstrated the methods and curriculum he has been learning in his program of professional preparation. However, the school into which he goes when he leaves college may be quite different. Its students may vary widely in their socioeconomic status, and its teachers may vary in their professional competence.

As a student teacher in the public school, he is more likely to find conditions similar to those under which he will later teach. In these schools, also, he will find some expert teachers, some accustomed to supervising, and others much less expert. He may find a philosophy and practices in teaching similar to those presented in his professional preparation, but on the other hand, he may find just the opposite.

Both arrangements have advantages and disadvantages, of course. Some colleges and universities prefer the combination of the two, the student moving from one to the other during his period of student teaching. Much depends upon whether the campus school is an experimental, demonstration, or practice school.

Procuring Adequate Cooperating Teachers. The problems involved in providing for student teaching need careful attention today, as indicated by the Harvard Reading Study.⁴² Teachers dedicated to the improvement of teaching and adequately

⁴² Mary C. Austin, *op. cit.*, pp. 89-95.

prepared for supervision render outstanding, unselfish service. But often teachers do not wish to take on the added responsibility of supervising beginners and of giving over their classes to them. If a teacher assumes the responsibility chiefly to be relieved of trivia in the day's routine and to add to his monthly income, he will give the student teacher very limited experience indeed. On the other hand, public schools have sometimes accused the colleges of giving too little assistance once the students are assigned to a classroom and of sending relatively inexperienced, low-ranking staff members to supervise who have had no connection with the previous program of the particular students whom they are supervising.

In the Woodruff study, already quoted, 209 of the 369 colleges responding to the questionnaire said teachers in the public schools must volunteer for such supervision before they can be considered as candidates. Three hundred and twenty-nine reported that these candidates must then be approved by their principal or supervisor and 302 required approval by the colleges concerned.⁴³

With increased enrollments in teacher education, several colleges in a given state may compete with each other for the same services from the public schools. Financial arrangements vary from none at all to considerable sums paid to the teachers or to the cooperative school systems.⁴⁴

Policies and Procedures for Cooperation. Recently efforts have been made to set up agreements in advance which define the responsibilities and rights of both parties to the contract. There is wide disagreement as to what kind of remuneration should be given to cooperating teachers. Many believe that nothing at all or a predetermined amount should be paid and that whatever is paid should come from the state and not from the individual institution.⁴⁵ The Board of Education of the city of Minneapolis and the University of Minnesota agreed on a statement of *Policies and Procedures Relating to Cooperative Education Procedures* covering such general considerations as protection of the welfare

⁴³ Asahel D. Woodruff, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 13-23.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 13-23.

of the schools, administrative control of the program, and the nature of the cooperative activities. Three public schools were designated as demonstration centers in which both the curriculum and the selection of teachers are to be the joint responsibility of the university and of the city. Reasonable loads and acceptable remuneration are assured. A similar definition of terms agreed upon was set up for schools in which student teaching is to be done. The responsibilities and rights of the student teacher, the cooperating teacher in the city schools, and the university supervisors are also defined, with required qualifications of each set forth in the agreement.

State Certification for Cooperating Teachers. Many states are now facing the same problems. Increasingly, state authorities are requiring public schools to assume responsibility for assisting in the education of teachers who are being prepared primarily to serve them. For example, the Minnesota State Board of Education has approved a report of a Subcommittee on Teacher Education creating a state certificate for supervising teachers and defining the required preparation for it. The agreement also establishes a maximum compensation to be paid for such service, hoping that ultimately the state will itself take over the cost of this aspect of the teacher education program. The subcommittee was composed of representatives of colleges, public school officials, and supervisors and cooperating teachers who had already had some years of experience with the program.

As a result of his AACTE report, Woodruff made a similar recommendation for the state of Utah, which read as follows:

Inasmuch as:

- _____ this function (of directing student teaching) is now very prominent and will remain so;
- _____ since it can be carried on only in the public school,
- _____ since it is of such critical importance to the quality of public education,
- _____ since it requires a person with special qualifications and training, and
- _____ since it must inevitably be superimposed upon a teacher's classroom responsibilities and, therefore, imposes a double responsibility upon that teacher,

it is, therefore, proposed that we establish within the public school structure the position of "Cooperating Teacher" (or other appropriate title) with clearly defined:

- A. Responsibilities within the American education systems
- B. Functions
- C. Requirements in preparation and experience
- D. Procedures for certification and selection and appointment and
- E. Appropriate compensation.⁴⁶

EVALUATING NEW PROCEDURES

Finally, the profession shows increasing concern for preparing teachers *today* for *tomorrow's* schools.⁴⁷ The overwhelming influx of students in the last decade at every level of instruction has led to considerable interest in the new technology which is making its contribution to learning as well as to science and industry.

Use of Television, Tapes, and Recordings. Schools are experimenting with teaching by television. Methods of securing response from children, of utilizing the classroom teacher, and of relating the program to the continuing work of the school are improving daily. Experimentation goes on continuously to discover means of overcoming the limitations of such instruction.⁴⁸

Local school systems are using educational television to add enrichment and vitality to their curricula. Classroom teachers recognize the importance of regular and occasional programs on national and international channels.⁴⁹ Excellent tapes and record-

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 43.

⁴⁷ Arthur D. Morse, *Schools of Tomorrow—Today* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Company, 1960).

⁴⁸ American Council for Better Broadcasts, *Better Broadcasts* (Madison, Wis.: ACBB, bimonthly).

The Fund for the Advancement of Education, *Teaching by Television* (New York: The Fund, 1961).

⁴⁹ Neil Postman and the NCTE Committee on the Study of Television, *Television and the Teaching of English* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961).

Donald Tarbet, *Television and Our Schools* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1961).

R. Murray Thomas and Sherin G. Swartout, *Integrated Teaching Materials* (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1960).

ings are available from established firms and organizations. *Mark Twain's Mississippi*, put out by a committee of the National Council of Teachers of English in cooperation with and available from Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., has proved useful in the intermediate and upper grades. Available to the lower grades are films which stimulate speaking and writing, such as *The Care of Pets*, by the Encyclopaedia Britannica, *Ways to Find Out*, by Churchill Films, and *Whatever the Weather* (in verse), by Educational Horizons. Many other films prepared especially for the elementary school are listed in the *Educational Film Guide* and the *Filmstrip Guide*.⁵⁰

Language laboratories have demonstrated the effectiveness of tapes for use in an oral-lingual method of teaching foreign tongues.⁵¹ Surely the same techniques can be developed to teach variant and acceptable usages in English and to demonstrate regional or social class deviations and changes in the language through the centuries.⁵² Studies of the effectiveness of oral drill suggest possibilities for improvement in English usage if similar equipment can be made available to English classes. Already the use of tapes in speech, in drama, and in the oral reading of poetry has demonstrated its worth. Research studies for the use and evaluation of all these media and the technical skill needed in the operation of them should be prepared.

⁵⁰ *Educational Film Guide* (with supplements) (New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1959).

Filmstrip Guide, with supplements (New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1958).

For filmstrips available from the NCTE, see *Guide for Elementary School Teaching of English*, published annually by the NCTE, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

⁵¹ James S. Holton, Paul E. King, Gustave Mathieu, and Karl S. Pond, *Sound Language Teaching* (New York: University Publishers, 1961).

⁵² Central High School in Detroit has a controlled experiment in progress utilizing four tenth grade classes of southern migrants of low socioeconomic status who are using tapes to develop language patterns that will serve them more effectively in northern urban areas. A series of fourteen English lessons on magnetic tape has been developed, each just under a half hour in length. The first tape is only fifteen minutes long, so that there is time for discussion. It is designed to be played on an open tape for all to hear together, whereas the other thirteen, which range from 25 to 28 minutes, are designed to be heard via earphones, giving the illusion of individual instruction and calling for oral repetition.

The Teaching Machine. Experiments with teaching machines have now reached national proportions. The work of Pressey, Stolurow, Skinner, and others in developing programs of learning suitable for presentation on machines is now attracting national attention. A typical program may be as follows: A scholar prepares a carefully worked out sequence of lessons mapping a recognized area of instruction, which is then taped for the machine. The child, sitting before the machine, reads the material presented, follows the instructions given, and finally makes the response called for, often by a multiple choice technique in which he answers the questions by pressing the appropriate button. An indicator tells him whether he is right or wrong. If the machine is intricate, it turns him back to additional exercises leading up to the one on which he has failed or forward to the next one if he has succeeded. The process can also be used for steps in learning based upon critical thinking.⁵³ The price of the machines varies with the intricacy of the steps involved, the simpler ones indicating success or failure, and the more intricate redirecting the practice of the individual learner. While the former may be relatively inexpensive, the machines that automatically redirect the learner are prohibitive in price except for psychological clinics.

Twenty-seven research projects, supported by federal funds, are already launched under the direction of the New Education Media Program, together with others sponsored by private foundations. "The system," says Dr. Stolurow, "is composed of a teacher, a program of instruction, and a student, all in a particular pattern of interaction. . . . We define the primary objective of instruction as the *modification of the learner's responses to satisfy the teacher's criteria.*" Knowledge is presented in "*an entirely predetermined sequence*" with variations in progress determined by the responses of the learner.⁵⁴ Prospective teachers need to be familiar with such studies and be able to judge, on

⁵³ Joseph W. Rigney and Edward B. Fry, "Current Teaching-Machine Programs and Programming Techniques," *A. V. Communication Review*, IX (May-June, 1961, Supplement 3).

⁵⁴ Lawrence M. Stolurow, *Teaching by Machine: Cooperative Research*, Cooperative Research Monograph No. 6 (Washington: USOE, Dept. of HEW, 1961).

the basis of their background in philosophy and psychology, in what areas of learning the machines may be useful and in which ones they will play no part.⁵⁵

Jerome S. Bruner, in his *The Process of Education*, evaluates the usefulness of all such aids to learning and cautions against overexaggerated claims by both opponents and proponents of them. He divides these aids into four types:

- I. Devices for vicarious experience
Films, filmstrips, tapes, recordings, and literature
- II. Model devices to help the student to grasp the underlying structure of a phenomenon
Laboratory experiments, demonstrations or models, charts, graphs, films, illustrations, diagrams, sequential presentations leading from concrete examples to generalizations, and slide projections
- III. Dramatizing devices
Films, novels, or plays of major periods, events, or personalities
Documentary and nature films
The "drama-creating personality of the teacher"
- IV. Automatizing devices
Teaching machines with orderly presentation of problems or exercises guiding the learner one step at a time.⁵⁶

In all subjects the major question of fitting the film, the sequential scheme for learning, or the tapes and recordings into the continuing program of instruction involves the learner's purpose as well as the teacher's. Because language is a social instrument, the social setting in which it develops plays a significant part in learning. Its purpose is always *expression* as well as *impression*, and its success lies in its effect upon others. "There is always a question," says Dr. Bruner, "as to the purpose of any device—be it a film on paramecia or a slide projection of a graph or a television show on the Hoover Dam. *The devices themselves cannot dictate their purposes.* Unbridled enthusiasm for audio-

⁵⁵ Edgar Dale, "Self-Instruction Through Programmed Materials," *The Newsletter*, Bureau of Educational Research and Service, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, XXV: 5 (February, 1961).

⁵⁶ Jerome S. Bruner, *op. cit.*, pp. 81-88.

visual aids or for teaching machines as panaceas overlooks the paramount importance of what one is trying to accomplish. . . . The objectives of a curriculum and the balanced means for attaining them should be the guide."⁵⁷ Behind intelligent use of such aids will always be "the technique and wisdom of the skillful teacher."⁵⁸ This is the biggest argument for a careful study of such aids in the professional preparation of the prospective elementary school teacher. He must learn to prepare programmed materials with due regard for adequate psychological sequence and the relative importance of topics. These will more frequently be mimeographed or dittoed materials than programs for a machine.

Team Teaching. Finally, in view of the present shortage of teachers and the increasing influx of children into the schools, a movement is underway to organize pupils into groups of one hundred or more, each under the direction of a master teacher and a corps of additional professional staff, teachers' aides, clerical workers. The master teacher, whose salary and rank, because of years of successful experience, are above those of others, plans the program and works through and with a team of three or four teachers, equal in rank, whose special interests and talents represent all areas of the curriculum. Attached to the staff also are personnel on a part-time basis drawn from liberal arts graduates in the community, student teachers on salaried or nonsalaried appointments, clerical assistants, and technical and custodial workers assisting more than one such group.

Sometimes the children meet as a unit for a presentation directed by the master teacher or for a film, a demonstration, or reports by groups to the entire class. Sometimes they meet in small groups with a member of the staff for planning, discussion, or direct follow-up of the major presentation or for individual instruction. In many of these activities the liberal arts graduates or teachers' aides will help. Adequate space for both large and small groups and a variety of technical equipment must be provided. If instruction is to be adjusted constantly to individual needs and if reports to parents are to be adequate, teachers must

⁵⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 87-88.

⁵⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 92.

confer often and plan much material, and aides and clerical assistants must keep careful records.

Many arguments for and against this organization, especially in the elementary school, have appeared in print.⁵⁹ An interesting summary of these is available in *The Instructor* for October, 1961, together with the names of places where the experiment has been tried, such as Lexington, Massachusetts; Norwood, Connecticut; Janesville, Madison, and West Bend, Wisconsin; and Southern California.⁶⁰ Accounts vary from those of programs like the old Winnetka plan in which pupils sat at their desks doing exercises in usage completely divorced from the normal use of language and could, if they covered enough of them, jump several grades in one year, to well-integrated programs involving all-class activities promoting thinking and social and communicative values in the language arts.⁶¹

Many critics of this plan believe in the self-contained classroom in which the pupil has the security of a "home" room and a "home" room teacher, and, as one child said, "a desk of his own." On the other hand, the growing breadth of subject matter in the elementary school curriculum obviously has already gone beyond the capacities of the individual teacher. Some means of sharing the varied talents of the elementary school teachers within a single school building must be devised. A flexible use of facilities and staff so that the children may have the privilege of both large-group and small-group instruction under expert guidance seems imperative. More use of talented and broadly experienced members of the community is also desirable. The chief challenge which team teaching poses to those who feel it is unsuitable for younger children is to develop within the school ways of utilizing teachers as means of enriching the program and adjusting the rate of progress of pupils of varying abilities and interests. No one method will be best for every school or for

⁵⁹ Robert H. Anderson *et al.*, "Team Teaching in an Elementary School," *School Review*, LXVIII: 1 (Spring, 1960), 71-84.

Anne S. Hoppock, "Team Teaching: Form without Substance?" *National Education Association Journal*, L (April, 1961), 47-48.

⁶⁰ "Team Teaching," *The Instructor*, LXXI (October, 1961), 40-42.

⁶¹ In Winnetka, however, socializing activities were carried on in the afternoon, separately from the skills program.

every child. The more diverse the program can become, the better. The prospective teacher should direct his thinking and his practice toward solving this problem. At the moment, reliable research evidence concerning any one of the methods of doing this, including team teaching, is unavailable. The prospective teacher should be able to evaluate all such techniques in the light of the principles involved.

GENERAL SUMMARY

The present shortage of teachers and the ever increasing influx of children into the elementary schools of this country are making urgent demands upon the colleges and universities for more adequate recruitment, selection, and professional preparation of teachers. An institution-wide committee involving cooperation of all departments related to the education of prospective teachers should bring to bear the entire resources of the institution upon the problem. Mere admission to college or university should not constitute acceptance for the teacher education program. Upholding standards of selection has been found to increase the number of candidates who apply. Both academic and professional departments as well as the public schools need to help recruit desirable candidates for teaching from among their students.

General practice indicates that the proportion of work in professional education required of elementary school teachers varies from about one-fourth to one-third, depending upon whether courses in professionalized subject matter such as Art for Teachers or the Health of the School Child are recorded as professional or academic. When such courses are counted as professional requirements, the agreement of the Second Bowling Green Conference of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards that the proportion of credits assigned to each aspect of the program be one-third to general education, one-third to professional education, and one-third to academic specialization in one or more areas of learning seems reasonable.⁶² No scientific justification exists, however, for any such allotment of credits at either the elementary or the secondary

⁶² NCTEPS, *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*.

school level. Much research is needed to establish the best program.

Four areas have been recommended in this volume for the professional program in education of the elementary school teacher:

1. The social, philosophical, and historical backgrounds of education, which may clarify and strengthen the student's convictions concerning the purposes of education in the United States, help him to avoid the ever present danger of repeating the mistakes of the past, and give him a basis for evaluating techniques;
2. the psychological foundation of learning, including principles of child development, individual differences, and the evidence of research as to how children learn;
3. special methods and materials in each subject of study, taught either separately or in an integrated program, in each case to be accompanied by classroom observation and experience as a teacher's aide;
4. student teaching and/or internship, in which the student ultimately has full responsibility for his class and experience in the community relationships of the teacher.

Departments and schools of education should be engaged constantly in efforts to improve the preparation of teachers by (1) examining their offerings to distinguish between needed deepening and reinforcement of learning through advanced work and mere proliferation of courses; (2) greater integration between theory and practice and increased contact with children and with the community; (3) closer relations with the public schools, leading to state programs for the recruiting and special preparation of cooperating teachers, and giving them adequate financial and professional recognition; (4) closer contact between these cooperating teachers and the major professors of the college; (5) more adequate preparation of teachers in the evaluation and wise use of newer classroom techniques.

Finally, throughout the country, the conviction is growing that

at least five years of preparation for teaching are necessary for certification for both elementary and secondary school teachers. The future teacher needs at least five years of preparation drawing upon the full resources of the college or university to be ready to fulfill the complex professional roles expected of him by society: he must be competent to help pupils learn, to counsel them, to make them aware of the culture in which they live, to use appropriately the resources of the school and the community, and to fulfill his obligations as a member of a school staff and of a profession.

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Part II

**EDUCATING TEACHERS OF ENGLISH
FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOL**

✿ *Major Recommendations*

1. Recruiting able students for teaching should begin in secondary schools and continue in undergraduate years.
2. The entire college faculty should accept responsibility for planning programs, selecting candidates, and strengthening standards of admission for teacher education.
3. The prospective secondary school teacher should give at least 40 per cent of his study to general education, at least 40 per cent to academic specialization, no more than 20 per cent to professional preparation.
4. Instruction in general education, the major and minor, and professional preparation should emphasize the basic structures of disciplines and the interrelationships among them.
5. The minimum major or minor in English should include at least one course in composition beyond the freshman year, courses in the history of the language and in modern grammar, and training in public speaking, in addition to a balanced program in literature.
6. A minimum professional program should include study of the psychological, social, and philosophical foundations of public education, a practical course in methods, observation in schools, and practice teaching.
7. All segments of the program in teacher education should be subject to continued evaluation and intelligent revision.
8. While present requirements should be consistently enforced, teachers in schools and colleges, through their subject matter organizations, scholarly societies, and professional associations, should seek jointly to strengthen certification requirements.

PREVIEW

RESPONSIBILITY FOR RECRUITING AND PREPARING TEACHERS

ASSIGNMENT OF TEACHERS

STATE REQUIREMENTS FOR CERTIFICATION

**WHAT SHOULD THE COMPETENT TEACHER OF SECONDARY
SCHOOL ENGLISH BE LIKE**

**RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS
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CHAPTER 4

Background for Planning Programs

THE PUBLIC'S CONCERN over the quality of education extends, obviously, to the quality of teachers in our secondary schools and of the courses they offer. Colleges and employers frequently pass judgment—often very publicly—upon the ability or inability of students and employees to use and understand the English language.¹ Any serious consideration of the problems of teaching English in the high schools must take into account, however, the relationship between teachers' preparation and the classes they are assigned to teach, the quality and number of candidates being prepared to teach English, and the kinds of programs by which they are being educated. The purpose of this chapter is to provide some background information related to programs for educating teachers of English for secondary schools.

SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS

Although the number of prospective teachers of English in the class of 1961 was 14.7 per cent more than those in 1960, the demand in a sampling of 27 states exceeded the increased supply by 27 per cent.² Conditions vary, of course, from community to

Written by Alfred H. Grommon, Stanford University; John R. Searles, University of Wisconsin; William A. Sutton, Ball State Teachers College; and Donald R. Tuttle, United States Office of Education.

¹ Joseph Mersand, *Attitudes Toward English Teaching* (Philadelphia: Chilton Company, 1961).

² NCTE Committee on the National Interest, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1961), p. 34.

community. The national shortage of teachers of English does not affect some favored areas. Moreover, a 1961 NEA report indicates that an increasing proportion of the class of 1961 took teaching positions in areas having the greatest shortage. Nevertheless, other areas continue to suffer serious and in some cases chronic shortages.³ Two common makeshift arrangements by which schools try to staff classes for which qualified teachers are unavailable are to assign those classes to other members of the faculty or to employ local nonteaching residents. This problem is discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Indications are that problems of teacher shortage certainly will worsen during the coming decades. Even if the conditions contributing to recent increases remain the same, high school enrollments will continue to expand until at least 1972. Although the number of new teachers of high school English has increased modestly each year since the low point in 1954, the number graduated in 1960 was still below the number prepared in 1950.⁴ Surely, something other than present methods of attracting new teachers must be tried, and tried vigorously, if the profession is going to be able to supply communities with competent teachers of English.

ACADEMIC ABILITY

Results of past studies of the relative academic abilities of prospective teachers are not entirely encouraging. North analyzed several studies over a twenty-year period and reported that education students consistently fall below most other groups. However, "no single study during the past two decades has been based on a completely representative national sample of teacher education students."⁵

Moreover, evidence from these studies is not clear cut, espe-

³ NEA Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1960* (Washington: NEA, 1960), p. 16; *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1961*, p. 14.

⁴ NEA, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1959*, pp. 12, 18; 1961, pp. 7, 12.

⁵ Robert D. North, "The Teacher Education Student: How Does He Compare Academically with Other College Students?" *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*; Official Report of the Second Bowling Green Conference of NCTEPS (Washington: NEA, 1958), p. 285.

cially on prospective teachers of academic subjects in secondary schools. Data are often based on surveys of academic abilities of all education majors in teachers colleges. In addition to candidates for elementary teaching, the total group would include those preparing to teach industrial arts, music, art, home economics, physical education: persons whose chief qualifications may or may not be the ability to perform well in traditional academic subjects or upon tests measuring academic aptitudes. Furthermore, in many liberal arts colleges and universities, prospective secondary school teachers enroll in their major academic departments, not in the department or school of education. Consequently, any of those students participating in such surveys are included among the liberal arts students. Currently, this group would represent most of the students preparing to teach academic subjects in high school.

In 1958 for example, 82.4 per cent of graduates qualified to teach high school subjects were prepared in general and liberal arts colleges and universities; only 17.6 per cent were prepared in teachers colleges.⁶ Therefore, past surveys of relative academic abilities of students majoring in education and of students attending teachers colleges may not represent the comparative abilities of prospective teachers of secondary school English, particularly of those enrolled in departments of English in universities and general and liberal arts colleges.

Moreover, in some colleges and universities, students preparing to teach do compare favorably with all other students in these institutions. Some of this evidence is presented in "Ten Criticisms of Public Education," a bulletin published by the NEA.⁷ The bulletin reports Sabol's findings that 73 per cent of the high

⁶ NEA Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1959*, p. 13.

According to T. M. Stinnett, the following numbers and types of institutions were preparing teachers in the U. S. in 1960: 85 teachers colleges, 221 universities, and 705 general and liberal arts colleges. This information is in G. K. Hodenfield and T. M. Stinnett, *The Education of Teachers* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961), p. 154.

⁷ NEA Research Division, "Ten Criticisms of Public Education," *National Education Research Bulletin*, XXXV: 4 (December, 1957), 174. References used here are the following: Edward A. Sabol, "Factors Relating to Post High School Educational Plans of New York State Youth: An Analysis of 20,734 Cases in 1953 (Unpublished dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia

school seniors in eleven New York counties "planning to enter teacher education institutions were in the upper 50 per cent of their graduating class." The University of the Pacific, Stockton, California, reported that although candidates for teaching credentials constituted only about one-third of the total student body, they received 57 per cent of the academic honors and designations in 1954-55; in 1955-56, they received 61 per cent; and in 1956-57, 67 per cent. In their study of the graduates of The Ohio State University in December, 1953, Wooster and Stover found that the graduates in education "rated, in general, above average in the scale of scholastic ability."

This favorable evidence notwithstanding, the profession cannot ignore or minimize the low academic ability of many candidates for teaching. In discussing this problem, North quotes Henry Chauncey, president of the Educational Testing Service, reporting the results of the Selective Service Qualification Tests of 1951-1952 which indicate the relative academic abilities of 2,000 men identified as being students in education.⁸ Chauncey points out that, however cautious one must be in generalizing from these data, particularly with respect to those preparing to teach academic subjects in high school, "the only conclusion that can be drawn from the exceptionally poor performance of the group [of education men] as a whole is that a large number of low-ability students *are* preparing to enter the teaching field."

RESPONSIBILITY FOR RECRUITMENT

At one time, all a teacher needed was a liberal education with little academic specialization. But with the development of the high school in the second half of the nineteenth century, teach-

University, 1954); George F. Wooster and Wallace W. Stover, "A Note on the Caliber of Education Graduates," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXXIII (September 15, 1954), 155-157, 167. The reference to Ohio State is from this study.

An earlier study of 458 students admitted to The Ohio State College of Education in 1947 was reported by Herbert A. Toops in "Committee on Technical Research," *Transactions of the Eighty-Third Annual Meeting of the Ohio College Association*, April 2-3, 1954. Toops states that in 1947 "a great many lowscoring students (tested on the Ohio State Psychological Examination) were admitted. . . . This was particularly true in the case of men."

⁸ Robert D. North, *op. cit.*, pp. 280-281.

ing positions became more specialized. At that time, the entire faculty of the liberal arts college or university, knowingly or not, prepared teachers for the secondary schools. However, as the teacher's responsibilities expanded to include more than conveying subject matter, college faculties began to include professors who specialized in preparing the prospective high school teacher to fulfill roles that depended also upon knowledge of applied psychology, of the philosophy and history of education, of methods of teaching, and on an awareness of what the community expected of him outside his classroom. Professors of education became identified with the responsibility for educating teachers for the schools. Many members of the liberal arts faculty seemed to lose sight of or intentionally ignore their fundamental role in the education of teachers.

Fortunately, this indifference is diminishing, if not disappearing. Liberal arts faculties and their subject matter societies today show a growing and encouraging concern with preparing teachers. Notable examples of this interest are the 1955 annual meeting of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education at which a symposium discussed "The Learned Societies and the Crisis in Teacher Supply and Preparation" and the national conferences sponsored by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, referred to as TEPS. About sixty organizations representing academic fields and professional education cosponsored and cooperated in the TEPS meetings, among them the National Council of Teachers of English, the Modern Language Association, the College English Association, and the American Council of Learned Societies. Devoted to a major area of teacher education and certification, each conference drew over 1,000 persons representing many organizations, schools, colleges, universities, and communities, all cooperatively seeking ways to improve the preparation and certification of teachers.

Individual subject matter organizations, such as the National Council of Teachers of English, are coordinating the efforts of teachers and administrators in the elementary and secondary schools and of college academic and education departments to strengthen the preparation of teachers and the teaching of subject matter throughout our entire educational system.

All of these projects and the related publications, together

with the programs sponsored or assisted by foundations like the National Science Foundation, the Ford Fund for the Advancement of Education, and the Carnegie Foundation, demonstrate that the responsibility for the education of teachers has been accepted throughout the many segments of the profession including the faculties of colleges and universities. This encouraging trend was evident in the very conception of the TEPS conferences and became increasingly apparent throughout the sessions.

In his summary of some of the discussions at the TEPS Second Bowling Green Conference, Moore stresses the importance of the entire college faculty's responsibility for educating teachers:

On one score practically all members of the Conference seemed to be in solid agreement: The preparation of teachers for America's schools is entirely too important to the general social welfare to be left in any way to chance methods or random assignment of college teachers to help with the preparation of their potential colleagues in the profession of teaching. With deep conviction the members of the Second Bowling Green Conference underscored their feeling that if a college or university is not willing to demonstrate that the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers is a central, and not an incidental, function of the institution, then it ought to quit trying to do the job at all.

They went further to say that it takes resources—money and laboratories and a well-trained faculty—and a never-ending effort on the part of the total college or university to reach solution of any of the many problems of teacher education which constantly come to the forefront. The phrase "total college" was second only to the well-worn word "rigorous" in frequency of mention in the reports of the various groups. It was clear that "total college" is precisely what the Bowling Green conferees had in mind. The experience at the Conference itself (members of various special fields brought together for the first time in such a large-scale national meeting to consider the problem of teacher education) bolstered their belief that total resources of a college need to be thrown into the professional preparation of teachers.⁹

⁹ Hollis A. Moore, Jr., "Elements in the Teacher Education Program—Professional Preparation," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*; Official Report of the Second Bowling Green Conference of NCTEPS (Washington: NEA, 1958), pp. 33-34.

COOPERATION BETWEEN LIBERAL ARTS AND EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS

Granted that the "total college" is beginning to accept this responsibility, in what ways is this cooperation demonstrated? A survey of the catalogs of 170 representative colleges and universities¹⁰ reveals that most indicate some measure of cooperation among the departments contributing to the preparation of teachers. Arrangements vary, of course, throughout the country, and the spirit with which they are administered cannot be determined from catalogs, reports, and speeches. But to the extent that genuine cooperation exists, presumably the education of prospective teachers benefits accordingly.

All of the examples found by the committee fit within the patterns of faculty organization Stiles identified in his study of the ways in which institutions coordinate their resources for the preparation of teachers.¹¹ His types of patterns and representative examples are presented here:

Patterns of Control for Policies and Undergraduate Programs of Teacher Education Below the General Faculty Level

Type I: Shared Control by All Professors Who Contribute to the Preparation of Teachers.

- A. Schools of Education organized on a basis analogous to the graduate school.

Examples: Temple University
University of Wisconsin

- B. All-Institution Council on Teacher Education with Power to Approve Policies and Programs.

Examples: Carleton College
University of Illinois

¹⁰ The committee that prepared this chapter examined the catalogs of 32 public and private universities, 100 liberal arts colleges, and 38 teachers colleges.

¹¹ Lindley J. Stiles, "The All-Institution Approach to Teacher Education," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*, pp. 254-258. Stiles' examples are not intended to include all institutions representing each type of organization.

University of Oklahoma

University of Texas

Type II: Majority Control by Professors Budgeted in School of Education with Participation by Selected Representatives of Other Schools and Colleges.

- A. School of Education Faculty Augmented by Selected Representatives from Other Schools.

Examples: University of California

University of Minnesota

- B. Dual Professors Serve in Both Department of Education and Subject Matter Departments.

Examples: Miami University

Stanford University (also has University Committee on Teacher Education)

Syracuse University

University of California at Los Angeles

- C. Advisory Council on Teacher Education with Institution-wide Representation.

Examples: Grinnell College

Michigan State University

University of Michigan

Type III: Exclusive Control by Professors Budgeted in School of Education.

- A. Independent School of Education Composed Only of Professors Whose Primary Concern Is Teacher Education.

Examples: College of William and Mary

Northwestern University

The Pennsylvania State University

University of North Carolina

- B. Composite College of Education with Authority to Provide Courses in Academic Subjects and Professional Education.

Examples: George Peabody College for Teachers

Illinois State Normal University

National College of Education

New York University

Teachers College, Columbia University

Type IV: Exclusive Control by Liberal Arts Faculty.

A. Department of Education Located in Liberal Arts College in the University Structure.

Examples: Duke University (also has Committee on Teacher Education)

University of Colorado

B. Independent Liberal Arts College Faculty Treats Teacher Education as an Aspect of Liberal Arts Program.

Examples: Hanover College
Lawrence College
Oberlin College

The most comprehensive program of coordination is Type I, in which all professors contributing to the education of teachers share in the control of the program. At the University of Wisconsin, for example, Stiles states that, in establishing policies for teacher education, the faculty of the School of Education has since 1930 included all members of the faculty who help prepare teachers.¹² In 1958 this faculty consisted of 585 professors and administrators from throughout the university, only 76 of whom were, in the strict sense, professors of professional education. All members of the faculty have the right to vote. Policy-making committees consist of persons from education and the academic departments. The executive committee of the School of Education includes the chairmen of six departments directly concerned with programs of professional education and nine members selected from the colleges of Letters and Science, Medicine, Home Economics, Agriculture, and Commerce. In addition, persons responsible for teaching courses in methods and for supervising student teaching usually hold joint appointments in the academic departments and the School of Education. This plan exemplifies the total college concept of teacher education.

Stiles' other examples illustrate a variety of cooperative, though less comprehensive, arrangements. One of the most common is a committee, advisory or policy-making, on teacher education consisting of representatives of the central administration, several

¹² Lindley J. Stiles, "The All-Institution Approach to Teacher Education at the University of Wisconsin," *ibid.*, pp. 153-159.

liberal arts departments, and education.¹³ In his report on the nature and functions of the committee at Duke, Cartwright states that "the Committee is advisory to the university administration and to the appropriate faculties. It keeps informed on the status of teacher education at Duke and makes recommendations on such policies and actions as it chooses or are referred to it. While it is advisory only, its advice is respected."

The operative results of whatever organization is established to coordinate resources take many forms. For prospective teachers enrolled in liberal arts departments, some institutions provide a minor in education that may count toward the bachelor's degree. Others, Harvard for one, not having an undergraduate minor in education, count certain courses in education toward the bachelor's degree in Arts and Sciences. Other provisions are these: cross-listing in the departments of English and education courses in the teaching of English, offering such a course within the department of English, assigning to teach this course a professor who holds an appointment in both departments, and assigning a staff member from each department to teach the course. Some departments of English establish special English courses for teaching majors and for experienced teachers. For

¹³ For an example of this type of committee and other aspects of cooperation throughout a university, see William H. Cartwright, "An All-University Approach to Teacher Education," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*, pp. 135-144.

For information about the increase in the number of these committees throughout the country see Hodenfield and Stinnett, *op. cit.*, p. 141. Stinnett reports that a survey made in 1960 by the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education shows that "Almost one-half (360) of the responding institutions (768) indicated that they had established such a cooperative body. When those responding 'No, but . . .' are taken into account, perhaps as many as two-thirds of the responding institutions have set up all-institution committees of some kind on teacher education. Another significant aspect of the CCTE survey is that 87 per cent of these committees have been established since 1950, and 40 per cent of the total were established between 1958 and 1960, concurrent with the three cooperative (TEPS) conferences . . ."

For a detailed discussion of the nature and functions of such committees see *On the Education of Teachers, A Report of the Joint Commission to Improve the Education of Teachers in California*, Sponsored by the California Council on Teacher Education and Western College Association (Upland College, Upland, California, 1961), pp. 7-9, 10-14.

example, at Harvard members of the faculty of the Graduate School of Education and of the Department of English cooperate in planning and teaching English courses in the summer session. Departments of English and education also cooperate in supervising student teachers,¹⁴ in recommending candidates for teaching certificates, in planning, staffing, and managing conferences, institutes, or workshops for teachers of English in the secondary schools, colleges, and universities.

The existence of these cooperative arrangements indicates at least an awareness of mutual responsibility for utilizing the full resources of an institution in the education of teachers. However, the fulfillment of this dual responsibility extends far beyond mere agreements on programs and distribution of units. On the great importance of the attitude that permeates such a pattern of organization, Cartwright says:

The problem which we are discussing is much more a problem of good faith in human relations than in mechanics of organization. Good organization will help, but no amount of machinery can make up for the absence of good faith. The noble purpose of machinery for cooperation is vitiated where academicians or educators suspect or impugn the others' motives. Differences are bound to arise not only between but within these groups. But where it is recognized that all are really striving for the improvement of education, the differences can be resolved to the advantage of both groups and, more important, to the welfare of society.¹⁵

To be cherished are a genuine spirit of cooperation and a mutual respect among the many people contributing to the preparation of teachers.

RECRUITING PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

Missing still, however, is an indication of cooperative attack upon an even more urgent problem—the recruitment of a sufficient number of desirable candidates for teaching. The annual

¹⁴ Dean Cartwright reports that twenty-five academic professors at Duke have visited student teachers in a single year, *op. cit.*, p. 141.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 136.

supply consists largely of students who, on their own, apply for admission to programs of teacher education.

And not all of even those students become teachers. Each year only about three-fourths of new college graduates who prepare to teach actually enter the profession. The Introduction cited the NEA report that from 1948-1958 more than 300,000 qualified college graduates did not take teaching positions. Although more than 139,000 of the June, 1961, college graduates were eligible to teach, 10,000 more than the year before, only 102,000, still 73.5 per cent, actually began teaching that September.¹⁸ Other professions and vocations attract teachers, of course. But the salaries and the teaching and living circumstances offered to teachers betray to teaching candidates the low esteem in which some communities hold the profession.

As mentioned in the Introduction, two generally overlooked causes of the continuing shortage, however, are the failure of local school districts to send their superior high school graduates to college to become teachers and the failure of many instructors in college academic departments to assume any responsibility for recruiting bright college students for careers in teaching. Because of the importance of their influence upon students' attitudes toward teaching as a career, teachers of college English should examine the effect of their attitudes toward students and the profession upon those who may be likely candidates for the profession. Since most, if not all, undergraduates enroll in freshman English, these instructors particularly should consider how they may be conditioning attitudes of each generation of college students toward careers in teaching.

Some college instructors, to be sure, are effective representatives of the profession and continuously search for promising prospective teachers and give prestige to teaching. Many, however, are indifferent to or unaware of their opportunities to recruit from their classes and advisees suitable candidates for teaching. A few, worse than being merely indifferent, actually discourage even promising students from entering the instructors' own profession. Studies show that one-fifth to one-fourth of the teachers in samplings did not speak favorably of teaching as a career and

¹⁸ NEA, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1961*, pp. 12-13.

would not choose teaching as a career if they had had a chance to relive their lives.¹⁷

Ironically, some of these same instructors are among those who are critical, if not scornful, of the caliber both of students who prepare to teach in secondary schools and of these candidates' pupils who later attend college. Just as districts facing chronic shortages of teachers apparently do not see the relationship of this problem to the schools' failure to send future teachers on to college, so do some college teachers fail to see the relationship between their indifference toward recruiting and their criticism of the quality of prospective teachers or of the academic preparation of college freshmen.

As statistics on supply and demand annually reveal, the college students who drift into or by themselves elect the teacher preparation program cannot maintain an adequate, continuous supply of highly qualified teachers. Instead, each institution must plan effective methods of counseling qualified students on the merits of a career in teaching. The concept of the entire college's responsibility for teacher education must expand to include also the responsibility for recruiting teachers from among undergraduates. Members of liberal arts faculties have the most frequent opportunities to influence the largest group of prospects.

SELECTING AND CERTIFYING CANDIDATES

Improving an educational system depends upon the talents of people attracted to the profession. Where does the search for quality begin? It starts with counseling high school students. It continues with applying criteria for admission to institutions preparing teachers and later to programs in teacher education. It extends to establishing the procedures for certification.

In reviewing the rather disturbing evidence on the academic abilities of students preparing to teach, North also reports somewhat more encouraging data from teachers colleges throughout

¹⁷ Richard C. Lonsdale, "Recruiting Young People for Teaching," *School Executive*, LXXV (November, 1955), 19-21; Curtis H. Threlkeld, "Problems in the Recruitment and Adjustment of Teachers," *Bulletin of the NASSP*, March, 1948, pp. 169-175.

one state indicating that "teacher education students in certain colleges that maintain high admission standards compare quite favorably with comparable groups of students in other curricular areas and in other four-year colleges."¹⁸ But how do high admission standards affect the number of candidates, especially during continuing shortages of teachers? Stout, on the basis of her national study of admission and retention practices in almost 800 college and university programs of teacher education, reports:

The false assumption that increasing standards of admission, preparation, and employment would reduce the supply has hindered progress. But higher standards produce more, not fewer teachers.

* * * * *

Results from the 91 per cent return [in the study of practices of selective admissions and retention] make clear that, in general, the institutions with the more extensive selection programs for teacher education are distinctly better producers, in terms both of graduates and placement of their graduates in teaching positions, than those with less extensive or nonexistent selective practices. Thus, even in terms of quantity, the use of selective practices would seem justifiable. More important, however, is the qualitative aspect of the problem.

* * * * *

To the recognized need and responsibility for selection should be added (1) the pragmatic evidence of the desirable effects of selective programs on *quality* of teacher production, and (2) the statistically valid evidence of the positive relationship between selective programs and quantity of production.¹⁹

According to this evidence, high standards in initial selection and continuous screening of prospective teachers realistically improve both the quality and the supply of candidates. Some colleges and universities have long demanded higher standards of

¹⁸ Robert D. North, *op. cit.*, pp. 284-285.

¹⁹ Ruth A. Stout, "Selection of Teacher Education Students," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*, pp. 248, 250, 254. For further evidence that higher certification standards do not reduce the supply of teachers, see Ruth A. Stout, "High Standards, More Teachers," *NEA Journal*, XLVIII (November, 1954), 507-508; R. W. Whidden, "Higher Requirements: More English Teachers," *Virginia English Bulletin*, V: 1 (March, 1955), 1-3, 7.

candidates for teaching than for their other students. As early as 1952-53, Stout found that 110 (14 per cent) of the 785 institutions required "a higher honor-point ratio for admission to teacher education than for other undergraduate curricula. Only .6 of 1 per cent reported lower standards."²⁰

Furthermore, freshmen entering the University of Washington from high schools in the state must have at least a 2.0 or "C" high school average, but those applying for admission to the College of Education must have at least a 2.20 average. Those who qualify for admission to the College of Arts and Sciences but not to the College of Education may later transfer to education after they have established a sufficiently high grade-point average (2.20) in the liberal arts departments.

Dean Stiles points out in his report on the Wisconsin program that candidates for admission to the School of Education, which occurs at the beginning of their junior year, must have achieved in their first two years in the College of Letters and Science a grade-point average of "C+" or 2.5, which is above that required of the rest of the university. Stiles says that as a result of this higher standard of admission, "students in the School of Education almost always lead the rest of the undergraduates in the University in grade-point averages."²¹

Although candidates for the bachelor's degree at Stanford University must have at least a "C" average, candidates for admission to the program for the general secondary teaching credential must have achieved in the School of Humanities and Sciences an undergraduate grade-point average of at least a "B—" or 2.75 in an already highly selected, competitive undergraduate student body.

If college enrollments double by 1970 as predicted, the number of applicants for admission to programs of teacher education should increase somewhat correspondingly. But only a policy of selective admission will ensure that well-qualified students become teachers.

²⁰ Ruth A. Stout, "Selection of Teacher Education Students," p. 251.

²¹ Lindley J. Stiles, "The All-University Approach to Teacher Education at the University of Wisconsin," p. 157.

The 170 colleges and universities surveyed by the committee select freshmen who present credits in specified subjects, have attained a certain academic average and rank in class, have achieved required scores on examinations such as the College Entrance Examination Board's Scholastic Aptitude and Achievement tests, present testimonials from school officials, and give evidence of physical fitness. Despite all the variables affecting a candidate's grades, his academic average, coupled with the College Board scores, is still probably the most reliable single predictor of his academic success in college.

But the importance of the personal fitness of a candidate for teaching cannot be overlooked. Stout found in her study that the most important personal qualifications of prospective teachers are "emotional stability, moral and ethical fitness and general intelligence, demonstrated ability to work with children, professional interest, motivation, and ability to communicate." If selective admissions do result in a greater supply of better qualified candidates for teaching, then the search for both quality and quantity must begin by exacting reasonably high standards of academic and personal fitness of all prospective teachers.

JUNIOR-YEAR AND GRADUATE PROGRAMS

Many institutions do not admit students to their programs of teacher education until the junior year. In the states requiring five years of college and in some universities elsewhere offering the degree of Master of Arts in Teaching, candidates may not be selected until they apply for admission to graduate standing. Throughout programs deferring candidates' admission until the junior or the fifth year, the academic and the education faculties have the dual responsibility of encouraging qualified students to prepare for teaching and of evaluating them continuously. Those who seem unfit for teaching are directed out of the program into ones for which they seem better suited.

Institutions selecting candidates in the junior or the fifth year use several criteria. Because most of the criteria found in the survey made for this chapter are incorporated in the comprehensive program used by the University of Colorado in selecting

student teachers, the Colorado plan is presented here in detail.²²

The plan developed at the University of Colorado illustrates the current trend toward organizing faculty resources and procedures for selecting the students to be admitted to student teaching. The university is a multipurpose educational institution in which the education of teachers is regarded as an all-university function. An All-University Council on Teaching, composed of representatives of all the departments and colleges of the university whose majors prepare for teaching, serves in an advisory capacity to the School of Education. Upon the recommendation of the Council, the president of the university appointed a committee to formulate a plan for the selection of students for student teaching. The committee was comprised of the Director of Student Teaching and nine members representing the departments and colleges most directly concerned with teacher education.

The following is a brief outline of the plan of selection for student teaching:

1. In the student's sophomore year, while he is enrolled in Educational Psychology, he is given a group personality test. Personality traits which are considered important for effective teaching are emotional stability, self-control, adaptability, self-sufficiency, dominance, sociability. The information obtained by the test score is supplemented in the case of some students by counseling interviews—before the student's application for student teaching is approved.
2. During the student's junior year, in the semester he is enrolled in Introduction to Education, he fills out a personal information sheet. The student reports his extraclass activities, experience in working with children, work experience, and reasons for his interest in teaching. The filing of this form is considered an indication of the student's intention to prepare for teaching in the elementary or high schools.
3. After the student has declared his intention to teach, he takes a Speech Adequacy Test administered by the members of the Division of Speech in the Department of English. In the event the

²² Lindley J. Stiles, A. S. Barr, Harl R. Douglass, and Hubert H. Mills, *Teacher Education in the United States* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1960), pp. 280-282.

student has a remediable speech defect, he is required to take a course in speech for teachers or to attend a speech clinic if he wishes to qualify for teaching. More serious speech defects serve as one basis for refusing students admission to teaching.

4. During the student's junior year, his physical fitness for teaching is checked by members of the Student Health Service. A check is made of the student's medical examination at the time of his entrance to the university. Students whose records are questionable are called in for an additional medical examination by university physicians.
5. The committee also assembles the following information on the student during his junior year:
 - a. Psychological test score taken at the time of the student's entrance to the university.
 - b. Proficiency in English language as revealed by the Student's (sophomore) English Test score.
 - c. The student's participation in extracurricular activities, leadership experience with youth groups, and his work experience.
6. In the semester the student is enrolled in Principles of Secondary Education . . . , he makes formal application for a student teaching assignment.
7. Approval of the application for student teaching also depends upon the student's satisfying the following requirements:
 - a. Senior or graduate status in the University of Colorado by the time he begins his student teaching, with a minimum grade-point average of 2.25 (on a four-point scale).
 - b. Maintenance of a grade average of not less than 2.50 in the student's major teaching field. Approval of the student's course work in his major teaching field from the university supervisor in that field.
 - c. A grade-point average of not less than 2.50 in each of the student's minor teaching fields. For a distributed studies major, a grade-point average of 2.50 in each of two additional subjects he is preparing to teach.
 - d. A favorable recommendation from the student's major advisor or department in regard to his fitness for teaching.
 - e. The completion of the prerequisites in education for student teaching. A grade-point average of at least 2.50 in the prerequisite courses in psychology and education.
8. The information on each student making application for student

teaching is reviewed by the Committee on Selection of Students for Teaching. Students who fail to meet the minimum requirements as outlined in this plan are advised not to prepare for teaching. Those students who meet the requirements are sent an official notice from the committee granting them permission to enroll in student teaching during the following semester.

This Colorado procedure for continuous evaluation of students in its program of teacher education includes most of the methods found elsewhere. Variations of these procedures and a few other methods are used, however, in some institutions. For admission to the teacher education program, some universities require a 2.5 or 2.75 grade-point average. Before he can declare English as a major, the student in some universities must gain departmental permission, which depends at times on lower-division grades. At Johns Hopkins University, according to the catalog, the prospective major in English must demonstrate an ability to write "correct and effective English" and an aptitude for English studies. Ability to write is subject to continuous review. In some institutions, the candidate's program must be approved by representatives both from the department of English and from the department of education or a person who has rank in both departments.

Of primary importance is the evaluation of the applicant for admission to student teaching. The general practice seems to be similar to that at Colorado. A committee on student teaching or on secondary education usually reviews the candidate's records of academic ability and health; his program in general education, teaching major and minor, and professional education; recommendations from major and minor departments; and other personal qualifications. A major problem, of course, is the validity of prejudging the teaching potential of a candidate before supervised teaching gives him the chance to demonstrate in a classroom how well he can teach adolescents. But if institutions are to do what they can to protect pupils in the public schools, they have to evaluate a candidate on whatever evidence is available before he is permitted to enter the schools as a student teacher.

Final evaluation occurs, of course, in deciding whether or not

to recommend the candidate to the state authorities for a certificate to teach in public secondary schools. The foremost evidence is, of course, his success as a student teacher or intern. Other criteria are his overall grade-point average and grades in his major subject. In some institutions, as has been said, the prospective teacher must receive grades higher than those required of other students. Prospective teachers in some programs must pass tests and reviews of proficiencies and give evidence of satisfactory health, skill in speech, and personal fitness. A few colleges require graduates or candidates for teaching to take the Graduate Record Examination or the National Teachers Examination or both, although the catalogs do not tell what use is made of the scores. Finally, the candidate who meets these stipulations and who passes whatever proficiency examinations may be required by the institution or the state is recommended for certification to the state department. The state certification office issues the certificate.

ASSIGNMENT OF TEACHERS

The value of these procedures may be discarded by the local schools themselves through misassignment of teachers. English is one of the important school subjects frequently assigned to persons untrained to teach it. Preparing institutions, school administrators, state education authorities, and laymen dedicated to the improvement of public education must do everything they can to ensure teachers' being assigned to only those subjects they are prepared to teach.²³ In Chapter 8 of this volume, more will be said about follow-up studies by the institutions preparing teachers.

Although no full-scale national study has been made of who is actually teaching English in public secondary schools and with what preparation, a number of inquiries offer disturbing

²³ For an informative article on the enforcement of teaching assignments see Wayland W. Osborn, "The General Certification and Enforcement of Teaching Assignments," *Journal of Teacher Education*, XI (June, 1960), 206-217. Also see the official report of the NCTEPS San Diego Conference held in June, 1960, *The Education of Teachers: Certification* (Washington: NEA, 1960).

evidence. Some are summarized in the NCTE report on *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*. According to the best estimates of the National Council of Teachers of English, approximately 90,000 teachers are assigned secondary classes in English in public, independent, and parochial schools of this country. About half of these—from 40 to 60 per cent depending on the state—do not possess a college major in English. This percentage may rise as high as 70 per cent for English classes in grades seven and eight.²⁴ Thus, only 45,000 to 50,000 of the nation's secondary teachers of English possess college majors in the subject.

A 1961 report on California schools, prepared by its state department of education, indicated that only 1,918 (38 per cent) of California's 4,986 junior high school English teachers possess college majors in the subject, even when the major is defined as 24 to 36 hours of work, a number of hours incidentally which falls short of the reasonable minimum standards advocated by the Council. At the senior high school level in California, 59 per cent (3,717 of 6,337) of California's English teachers possess majors. But note the 41 per cent who do not. And this occurs in a state which pays among the higher teaching salaries in the nation and has reasonably high certification standards.²⁵

In another study, questionnaires were sent to 800 teachers of secondary school English in Wisconsin in 1958. Of the 440 teachers who replied, 266 (60 per cent) had been prepared as English majors (at least 24 semester credits of college English), 136 (31 per cent) as minors, and 38 (9 per cent) as neither majors nor minors. These data are too incomplete to be conclusive. But because at that time the state of Wisconsin accepted as few as 15 semester credits as an approved minor, 40 per cent of the respondents may have had only 15 or fewer credits in college English. A companion study of the records of the State Department of Public Instruction in Wisconsin shows that in 1958, 794 teachers were full-time teachers of English. However, 727 teachers taught English and one other subject; 127 taught

²⁴ NCTE, *op. cit.*, pp. 43-48, 60-87.

²⁵ Cited in James R. Squire, Statement Before the Education Subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, April 11, 1962.

English and two other subjects; 19, English and three other subjects; 22, English and four other subjects; and one, English and five other subjects.²⁶ Some of the factors contributing to unsatisfactory teaching of secondary school English are revealed in these two studies: difficulties in getting adequately prepared teachers, assigning many of these to teach subjects in addition to English, and assigning English classes to those prepared to teach other subjects.

Earlier studies in other areas substantiate these findings. Slaughter reported similar results in studies from Oklahoma and Michigan.²⁷ Again and again the evidence from different states reveals how widespread is the practice of assigning to English classes teachers poorly prepared in this subject.

²⁶ This information was provided by John R. Searles, Department of English and School of Education, University of Wisconsin, from an unpublished study by Robert C. Pooley and Jane Appleby, University of Wisconsin, 1958.

²⁷ Eugene E. Slaughter, *Desirable Standards for Teacher Selection and Certification* (Southeastern State College). An address given at the Conference on the Teaching of English, University of Wisconsin, July 14, 1959 (Mimeographed, 20 pp.). The Oklahoma study was published in *The Oklahoma Teacher*, XXXVII: 4 (December, 1955), 12-13, 15. The Michigan study was made by V. E. Leichty, Michigan State University, and was published in the *Newsletter of the Michigan Council of Teachers of English*, VI: 4.

For information about one city school system see Albert R. Kitzhaber, Robert M. Gorrell, Paul Roberts, *Education for College* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1961), p. 40. The authors report that when they made their study of the academic preparation of the 143 teachers of English in Portland, Oregon, they found that more than half of them "appeared to have majored in subjects other than English, 28 in education and 48 others in foreign languages, history, economics, biology, music, art, vocational education, home economics, or physical education."

For further information, see Eugene E. Slaughter and J. C. Dodman, *English Teachers in Oklahoma: How Much Preparation? Who Drops Out?*, Professional Standards Committee, Oklahoma Council of Teachers of English, September, 1955 (Mimeographed); Harold J. Bowers, *Laws and Regulations Governing the Certification of Teachers, Administrators, etc.* . . . , 1955, Department of Education, State of Ohio, Columbus, Ohio; William L. Frederick, "Education as a Responsibility of the States," in "Desirable Policies for the Certification of Teachers: A Symposium," *The Educational Record*, July, 1958, pp. 253-286. Frederick speaks for those who, in the absence of stronger certification requirements, would place the burden of maintaining standards on the local administrators and school boards when he says: "I would suggest that more school boards should be encouraged to set their own standards, to regard the certification standards of the state merely as a minimum, and to go well beyond these standards in making judgments about the qualifications of teachers."

Clear, too, is the inadequacy of many states' present requirements for teachers of English. When measured against the extensive knowledge and skills needed by the competent teacher of secondary school English, these skimpy minimum requirements indeed cause communities employing beginning teachers to question the adequacy of their preparation to fulfill the complex professional roles of the English teacher. The twin faults of weak requirements and misassignment of teachers create frustrating problems for educators and others pursuing excellence in public education.

STATE CERTIFICATION

Purposes of Certification. From our colonial period to the present, some form of licensure has applied to teachers in America.²⁸ Present certification of teachers is intended to help communities provide the best education possible for their children. As stated by Bowers, certification of teachers attempts:

1. To protect the school children from incompetent teachers.
2. To protect the taxpayers from a waste of public funds spent for incompetent teaching service.
3. To protect qualified teachers from the competition of those not qualified.
4. To raise the standards of training requirements for beginning teachers.
5. To improve teachers in service.²⁹

And, as expressed by La Bue, "certification regulations, properly formulated and applied, enhance the quality of American education and contribute to the building of a universally recognized teaching profession."

²⁸ Anthony C. LaBue, "Teacher Certification in the United States: A Brief History," *The Education of Teachers: Certification*, p. 156.

²⁹ Harold J. Bowers, *op. cit.*, as quoted by Donald R. Tuttle in a preliminary draft of *Certification to Teach English in the Secondary Schools* to be published by the National Council of Teachers of English.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR STANDARDS

Presently, the authority for establishing minimum requirements for teachers' certificates is, as reported by Stinnett, "almost completely vested by legislative authority in the respective state departments or state boards of education."³⁰ In some states, however, this authority is shared with certain cities and in some with certain state colleges. In most states the authorities have for many years enlisted the help of advisory committees or councils comprised of representatives of professional education organizations and the colleges and universities. Recently several states have included in their advisory councils representatives also of the liberal arts departments in the institutions preparing teachers. Combs' study in 1958 of provisions for cooperative planning corroborates Stinnett's. In her report she identifies the kinds of arrangements in every state and offers examples of cooperative planning.³¹ Emphasis upon this cooperation in the TEPS conferences on teacher education, to which the representatives of the learned societies and of the academic departments in the colleges and universities contributed significantly, demonstrated the importance and feasibility of state departments and boards of education enlisting help from such sources.

All groups involved in the education, certification, and employment of teachers should attend to the quality of requirements of certification, often compared with those in other professions, particularly medicine, law, and architecture. The standards of licensure in the other professions are kept high to protect society by guaranteeing the competence of the licensed practitioner and to police through accreditation the preparing institutions. But, according to Stiles, the low standards of certification for teachers in some states, despite efforts of accrediting agencies, seem to be "kept relatively low to permit graduates of

³⁰ T. M. Stinnett, "Certification Requirements and Procedures among the States in 1960," *Journal of Teacher Education*, XI: 2 (June, 1960), 173-184.

³¹ Louise Combs, "State Provisions for Cooperative Planning of Teacher Certification Requirements," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*, pp. 258-271.

poor teacher education programs to obtain teaching certificates." ³² As Stiles points out, present standards of certification of teachers are not comparable to those in medicine and law but to those for nursing, technician service, and social work.

In applying this analogy among professions, some critics of the quality of teachers in the public schools urge training institutions and state authorities to require candidates to pass proficiency examinations similar to those required of doctors, lawyers, architects. This subject is complex. Slaughter's study of the use of examinations for state certification of teachers is probably the most recent published report.³³ He reports that of the twenty-two states using such examinations three "leave all the action to the preparing institution, thirteen place the action in the state certification agency, and six provide for joint action by the state agency and the institution." These examinations serve several purposes: to substitute for college courses, subjects, or fields; to validate work done at unaccredited colleges; to grant advanced standing credit in college; and to test competence. Of these purposes, perhaps only the last, testing for competence, is in any way analogous to the purpose of proficiency examination in licensing doctors, lawyers, architects. The directors of the NCTE have instructed a committee to study the possible use, for this purpose, of a special proficiency examination in English. But more research is needed to test the validity of paper-and-pencil examinations as measurers of competence to teach four, five, or six classes each of twenty to forty adolescents five days a week.

Some states show a discrepancy between minimum requirements for certification and the somewhat higher standards of teacher education institutions in those states. Two avenues to licensure may then exist: institutional recommendation and direct application to the state. According to Stinnett, forty-two

³² Lindley J. Stiles *et al.*, *Teacher Education in the United States*, pp. 302, 303.

³³ Eugene E. Slaughter, "The Use of Examinations for State Certification of Teachers," *The Education of Teachers: Certification*, pp. 240-247. In the same report see also Jay E. Greene, "Qualifying Examinations Plus Institutional Recommendation for Teacher Certification," pp. 248-252; Earl E. Mosier, "Proficiency Examinations—A Wise or Unwise Policy?" pp. 232-239.

states require the beginning teacher to be recommended by his preparing institution.³⁴ In many states this procedure is coupled with an "approved-program approach." Thus, when the candidate has completed an institution's program already approved by the state and has received his institution's recommendation, the state issues his certificate automatically. The institutional recommendations are essential to protect the higher standards, lest the inferior drive out the higher. Otherwise, a candidate enrolled in an institution having standards higher than the state's might, on completing the legal minimum, apply directly to the state for his certificate and avoid the institution's higher standard. Although the legal authority for establishing and enforcing requirements rests with the state, the responsibility for striving to improve standards and procedures for certification must be shared by the state and its approved teacher education institutions.

DISTRIBUTION OF REQUIREMENTS

Of special concern to those anxious about the value of certification as one guarantee of a teacher's competence is the proportion of the requirements distributed among general education, academic majors and minors, and professional education. The misconceptions about these proportions are widespread.³⁵ Probably the most common and inflammatory one is that prospective secondary school teachers have to devote most of their

³⁴ T. M. Stinnett, "Certification Requirements and Procedures among the States in 1960," *Journal of Teacher Education*, XI (June, 1960), 173-184. In this same issue see also Jerome E. Leavitt, "Should Prospective Teachers Be Recommended for Certification by Their Colleges?" pp. 250-252; Willard B. Spaulding and Gerald J. Meindl, "The Institutional Recommendation for Certification," pp. 243-249.

³⁵ Joseph Mersand, *Attitudes Toward English Teaching* (Philadelphia: Chilton Company, 1961). Mersand reports on almost 1,250 responses to his questionnaires asking businessmen, college and university professors and administrators, editors, librarians, publishers, and managers of bookstores what they think about the results of the way English is now taught. Many candidly comment upon the preparation and certification of teachers of English. See particularly pp. 329-339.

time in college learning "how" to teach rather than "what" to teach. Recent nationwide surveys of requirements indicate, however, that although the minimum requirements in subject matter are indeed too low in some states, the proportions generally throughout the country are far from being so lopsided as uninformed critics claim. Changes in certification growing out of the TEPS conferences show a trend toward strengthening requirements in academic subjects and decreasing or reorganizing those in professional education.

For example, Stinnett reports that "as to comparisons of certification requirements in professional education and teaching fields and subjects, the medians and averages among all the states of the requirements for the latter generally exceed those in education. However, there are exceptions to this when the requirements of the individual states are examined separately. In many cases requirements for major teaching assignments in a given field such as English are lower than those in education."³⁶ He found that the range of state minimum requirements in professional education for high school teachers is from 12 to 27 semester credits. Out of a total of about 120 semester credits required for graduation, the median is 18. The requirements, however, in the 294 colleges and universities accredited by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) are slightly higher; the median is 23.³⁷

Cogan studied the requirements in professional education in the catalogs of 144 teachers colleges, public and private liberal arts colleges, and public and private universities in thirty-nine states and the District of Columbia. Because of the criticism of the requirements in professional education, particularly in the teachers colleges, his findings are especially pertinent. He found that, contrary to the statements of the critics, the requirements throughout the five types of institutions are about the same. In the teachers colleges as well as in the liberal arts colleges and universities only about 16 to 21 per cent of the program is de-

³⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 181.

³⁷ NCTEPS, *The Education of Teachers: Curriculum Programs*; Official Report of the Kansas Conference (Washington: NEA, 1959), p. 187.

voted to professional education and about 30 per cent of this requirement is in practice teaching. About these percentages and the criticism Cogan says:

Thus the requirements for secondary school teaching probably come close to representing the minimum rather than the maximum professional requirement as compared to the requirements in other professions in which the basic preparation is commonly completed in the undergraduate colleges.

* * * * *

Why, then, do so many laymen and teachers deprecate courses in education, yet look with admiration at the secondary schools of Australia, England, Germany, France, and Russia, whose teachers almost universally take more courses in education than the teachers in the United States?³⁸

Stinnett found also that the range of the states' minimum requirements for a teaching major is 12 to 40 semester units; the median is 24. Again, the requirements in the 249 accredited institutions reporting in the NCATE survey are higher than the states', the range being 18 to 64; the median, 30. As is apparent in the summary of the discussions at the TEPS Kansas Conference on curriculum programs in teacher education, the participants strongly recommended majors of 30 to 36 semester units. The inadequate minimums below 30 units—some as low as 12!—justify criticism.

Tuttle points out another kind of lopsidedness. A questionable balance exists between the modest scope of teaching majors in basic academic subjects and the comparatively extensive requirements for certificates in such special fields as physical education, home economics, industrial arts, music, art. Some of these extensive requirements may also include, however, courses relating subject matter to classroom teaching. On this problem, Tuttle states:

There would be as much logic in giving special certificates to teachers of English, because the English language is taught on every grade level and to all students. And the subject matter is more ex-

³⁸ Morris L. Cogan, "Professional Requirements in Collegiate Programs for the Preparation of High School Teachers," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*, p. 317.

tensive and difficult than that of most of the so-called special fields.

The result of such certificates has been to turn the preparation of teachers upside down—to put great stress on the peripheral subjects and to provide students with very poorly prepared teachers in the basic academic areas. For example, in 1955 in Ohio, while 54% of the new English teachers, 62% of the chemistry teachers, 65% of the biology teachers, and 73% of the French teachers had earned *fewer than 25 semester hours in their subjects*, 91% of the newly certified teachers of physical education, 92% of the home economists, 86% of the teachers of art, 92% of the teachers of industrial arts, and 97% of the teachers of music had earned more than 25 semester hours. The median preparation for teachers of English in Ohio in 1951 was 21 semester hours, whereas the median preparation in physical education was 40, in art 41, home economics 42, and music 61. . . . The latest revision of Ohio certification requirements has somewhat reduced this imbalance, but the situation involved is a national one not peculiar to Ohio, one which English teachers must consider in working for improved certification requirements.³⁹

In general, however, requirements in many states specify a reasonable distribution of credits among the three principal segments of a prospective teacher's college preparation: general education, academic major and minor, and professional education. Furthermore, requirements of many institutions exceed state minimums. Nevertheless, national and state organizations of teachers of English should keep working to establish for secondary school teachers at least the minimum requirements approximating the recommendations growing out of the TEPS conferences: 40 per cent of the units for general education, 40 per cent for subjects to be taught, and 20 per cent for professional education.

REQUIREMENTS FOR ENGLISH

One important step in awakening states and institutions to the need for increasing academic requirements, particularly those

³⁹ Donald R. Tuttle, *Certification to Teach English in the Secondary School*, Preliminary draft of report by the NCTE Committee on Teacher Preparation and Certification.

absurdly low, is to publicize present state requirements and to point out the range and contrasts throughout the country. The most comprehensive information now available on the quantitative state requirements for beginning teachers of secondary school English is provided by the national surveys made by Fisher in 1954 and 1957 and by Slaughter and Fisher in 1960.⁴⁰

The 1960 report presents extensive data collected by Slaughter from the fifty states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. It also includes Fisher's analysis of the recent information and of trends evident in changes occurring between 1954 and 1960. The purpose of these surveys has been to find out how much training in English the states require of persons who teach English with full credentials, not with temporary or emergency permits. They have also sought information about any differences between standard and minimum requirements for full-time teachers of English and those for persons teaching only a part-time load of English classes.

During the seven years covered by these three reports, changes in requirements have been toward increasing the number of credits in English for full-time and part-time teachers of English, toward clarifying requirements of states issuing blanket certification without endorsing subjects for which the candidate prepared, and toward states' specifying the number of units constituting an English major. Changes in the relative emphasis upon courses in English and those in professional education are shown in the following table adapted from one in Fisher's report on the certification requirements for the major in English:

	1954	1957	1960
Less Education than English	11	15	23
Same amount of Education and English	7	5	8
More Education than English	31	29	21

Some of the salient features of the 1960 report and of the changes since 1954 are these. Specified units of English in the

⁴⁰ John H. Fisher, "Certification of High School Teachers," *College English*, 22 (January, 1961), 271-275. The 1960 table and some of the notes are presented in the Appendix. For detailed information about requirements in 1954 and 1957 see Fisher's reports in *College English*, 16 (March, 1955) and 19 (May, 1958).

1960 *standard* requirements range from Indiana's 60 semester credits for its "area" requirement to Colorado's 18. An area requirement is a combined major in English, speech, journalism. But the *minimum* specified requirements for full-time teachers of English range from the 30 semester credits required by Connecticut, the District of Columbia, Florida, and North Carolina to 12 credits required by Colorado, Georgia, Utah, and Vermont. State specifications for *part-time* teachers of English range from the 18 credits required by New Jersey and West Virginia to 6 credits in Arkansas.

Although candidates in over half the states apparently may qualify for full-time teaching without meeting *standard* requirements, over 80 per cent of the states (forty-four states and the District of Columbia) have established rather respectable, *standard* subject matter requirements of at least 24 semester credits of English and, in some cases, related subjects. (See Appendix, p. 213.) However, in sixteen of these states, a candidate may qualify for full-time teaching of high school English by passing only 12 to 20 credits including freshman English. Here is the persistent, nagging problem. Most states have a fairly good standard requirement in academic subjects. Yet prospective teachers may legally qualify in these sixteen states with only one-third to one-half the academic preparation specified in standard requirements. So long as the shortage of qualified English teachers continues and so long as state authorities license poorly prepared teachers, communities can expect many of their pupils to be taught English by persons weak in subject matter.

A comparison of the reports of 1954 and 1960 indicates, however, the continuing efforts of many states to increase subject matter requirements. During those seven years, eleven states had increased or specified their requirements. In 1954, eight states (Arizona, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Nevada, New York, Virginia, and Washington) did not specify the number of units required for a major in English but had done so by 1960. In addition, New Hampshire increased its major from 18 to 30 credits; Alabama increased its from 24 to 30; and Kentucky, al-

though it did not change its English major of 30 credits, established an area major of 48 credits.

Information on the nature of minimum requirements is fragmentary, but the trend seems evident here, too. Between 1954 and 1960, eight states (Connecticut, Kentucky, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Virginia, and Wyoming) increased their minimums. The range was from Connecticut's increase from 15 to 30 credits to New Mexico's and North Dakota's increase from 15 to 18 credits.

Between 1954 and 1960 some states also changed requirements in professional education. Two states and the District of Columbia reduced theirs: the District from 24 credits to 18; New Hampshire from 21 to 15; and Virginia from 18 to 15. Five states increased theirs: Washington from 16 to 24 for its five-year program; South Dakota from 15 to 20; New Mexico from 16 to 18; Kansas from 18 to 20; Oregon from 22 to 25. The median for the requirements in professional education throughout the country is 18 credits, well within the 20 per cent of the program recommended by the TEPS conferences. This trend has continued since 1960. Texas, for example, in 1962 reduced the required 24 semester hours of education to 18.

In summarizing his analysis of the increases in subject matter reported in 1960, Fisher states: ". . . appreciable gains have been or are being made in 14 states, as compared with 12 that showed gains in 1957. The names of only two states appear in both lists, New Mexico and Nebraska. Hence, between 1954 and 1960, 24 states either have raised or have announced that they will raise their minimum requirements for English teaching." These continuing efforts to increase subject matter requirements throughout the country should reassure people who are concerned lest future teachers devote too much time learning how to teach and too little to what to teach. They attest to the widespread conviction that excellence in the public schools depends largely upon the quality of teachers. The surveys by Fisher and Slaughter show that although some states' subject matter requirements are indefensibly low, many state authorities are striving to certify only those teachers who have the strongest possible preparation.

in subjects they are to teach and have effective preparation in professional education.

CRITERIA OF COMPETENCE

As necessary as certification requirements are, they can usually be expressed only in terms of quantified minimums. The details of the kinds of English courses comprising the legal minimum, for example, are often left to the educational institutions. Because conditions are so varied among institutions, a state agency probably cannot specify details satisfactory to all. But even more complicated is any attempt to describe the "ideal" teacher of secondary school English. And yet, at each step in the process of selecting, educating, employing, and even firing teachers of English, decisions are being made in one way or another based upon someone's notions of what a teacher should be.

Certainly implicit in any institution's program and even in any instructor's design of a course are assumptions about the nature of the teacher to be developed. So, too, are the assumptions in this volume about the nature and abilities of the teacher who should be the end product of the recommendations herein presented. As controversial as any description may be, an attempt must be made to create a blueprint of the characteristics and qualifications of the teacher of secondary school English who might ideally be graduated from the nation's programs of teacher education.

As indicated in the Introduction and in Chapter 1, the competent teacher is able to fulfill his professional roles: to help his pupils learn, to make them aware of the culture in which they live, to counsel them, to use appropriately the resources of the school and community, and to fulfill his obligations as a member of a school staff and of a profession. As a teacher responsible for helping students learn the subject matter of English and related skills and acquire other aspects of the cultural heritage, he needs to be well trained in as much of English and general education as may be expected within the limits of four or five years of college. He must also be committed to his continuing

self-education as a student of his subject and his responsibilities as a teacher.

The teacher of English has much to contribute to his students and society through each of these roles, especially since, as a teacher of a required subject, he is likely to be teaching all of the children of all the people. This cliché should not obscure the implications of this fact for the education of teachers. Because most teachers apparently are of the middle class, they generally represent middle-class values.⁴¹ They should be aware of their own system of values and also of those of their pupils, some of whom hold the values of other segments of society. The teacher of English requires sufficient education in social and behavioral sciences to know what he represents and why, and to know also something about how his pupils (representing perhaps the whole range of the socioeconomic scale and many religious groups) judge the world and the value system represented by the public school system.

The following description of the kind of preparation a teacher of English should have was prepared by the Committee on the National Interest of the National Council of Teachers of English:⁴²

Let's assume that our prospective English teacher has good opportunities to learn language and literature during his childhood and youth. Much of the basic knowledge of English as his native language—which he understands, reads, speaks, and writes—he should have by the time he enters college. Likewise, by that time he should have read a number of major works that belong to English and American literature and some foreign pieces in the original language or English translation. He should consequently have developed a fair ability to judge and a taste to choose among literary works. During his four or five years of collegiate study, he should extend and sharpen his fundamental knowledge of the English language and literature and should acquire the special knowledge of English, together with the science and art of teaching it, which he will need for his work in the elementary or secondary school. If

⁴¹ Lloyd Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, Martin B. Loeb, *Who Shall Be Educated?* (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1954), pp. 101-102.

⁴² NCTE, *op. cit.*, pp. 40-42.

he intends to teach in the college or university, he should shape his program of studies to that end.

Those who subscribe to this statement hope that the teacher of English (1) has the personal qualities which make an effective teacher, (2) has received a well-balanced education, including knowledge of a foreign language and a basic grounding in science, mathematics, the social sciences, and the arts, (3) has received the appropriate training in psychology and professional education, and (4) has dedicated himself to humanistic values.

A Standard of Preparation to Teach English

- I. The teacher of English should have a certain fundamental and specialized knowledge of the English language and its literature, together with certain abilities and skills which enable him to perform expertly in his discipline.
- A. In language, he should have:
 1. A fundamental knowledge of the historical development and present character of the English language: phonology (phonetics and phonemics), morphology, syntax, vocabulary (etymology and semantics), the relations of language and society.
 2. A specialized knowledge of the English language which is appropriate to the teacher's particular field of interest and responsibility.
 3. An informed command of the arts of language—rhetoric and logic; ability to speak and write language which is not only unified, coherent, and correct but also responsible, appropriate to the situation, and stylistically effective.
- B. In literature, he should have:
 1. A reading background of major literary works which emphasize the essential dignity of the individual man. This background:
 - a. Implies a knowledge of major works, writers, forms, themes, and movements of the literature of the English-speaking people.
 - b. Reflects intensive study of many literary pieces.
 - c. Includes familiarity with some of the outstanding literary works in English translation, or in the original language, of the Greek, Roman, Norse, Italian, French, Spanish, German, Slavic, and Oriental peoples.
 2. A specialized knowledge of whatever writers and literary works,

forms, themes, media, and movements are appropriate to the teacher's particular field of interest and responsibility.

3. An ability to analyze and evaluate independently the various forms of imaginative literature as well as the utilitarian forms of verbal expression, and the insight to use suitable critical approaches in order to discover their literary and human values.

II. The teacher of English should have certain abilities and knowledge which belong to the science and the art of teaching language and literature.

A. These abilities include:

1. The ability to envision how his students may develop their potentialities through the study of language and literature.
2. The ability to excite their interest and direct their learning.
3. The ability to help them understand and use English practically and creatively.
4. The ability to elevate their taste and critical powers.
5. The ability to lead them to a perception of human problems and an appreciation of human values.
6. The ability to evaluate their progress and the efficacy of his own methods.

B. These abilities presuppose not only the fundamental but also the specialized knowledge and skills of the English language and literature which the teacher needs to fulfill his professional responsibility.

C. These abilities imply knowledge of the philosophies of education and the psychologies of learning as they relate to the study and teaching of the English language and its literature. Such knowledge:

1. Reveals how an individual unfolds and grows through his use and understanding of language and literature.
2. Supplies the teacher with a variety of methods for use in teaching his students the skills and arts which are appropriate to their level of attainment in English.
3. Informs the teacher of the relation which each phase or level has to the total school, college, and university program.
4. Includes an awareness of the basic issues in the teaching of English.

Differing descriptions of the teacher of English and his preparation might also be written. But the foregoing serves as a guide

to what is said later about the education of such a person and also as a guide that colleges and universities may reshape to describe the kind of teachers they are striving to prepare. Whatever the description, the wonder might well be, of course, how such a paragon can ever be created and then attracted into teaching.

RECOMMENDED PREPARATION

Given this model, what kinds of programs would produce teachers molded to such a pattern? One source of practical suggestions is surveys made of teachers of English themselves. Experienced teachers have been asked what courses have been most valuable.⁴³ Other studies have sought to identify the most common problems of first-year teachers.⁴⁴ Despite regional differences in teacher preparation and variations in priorities felt by beginning and by experienced teachers, several consistent responses recur. Consistently respondents stress the need for subject matter courses, especially in grammar and advanced composition; courses in methods; foundation courses in psychology; supervised teaching; courses in social and behavioral sciences and in language. More specific questions may be asked. For example, what kind of grammar courses do teachers find valuable, those in traditional grammar or those in modern descriptive grammar? But these recommendations reinforce the contributions of the three major segments of programs in teacher education: academic majors and closely related subjects, general education, and professional education.

In another inquiry, 200 leading educators were asked what new developments in education may be most significant for the

⁴³ Charles B. Willard and John D. Mees, "A Study of the Present Teachers of English in Illinois and Their Recommendations for an Improved Program," *Illinois English Bulletin*, 41: 8 (May, 1954).

⁴⁴ Shirley M. Carriar, "Instructional Problems of Beginning English Teachers of Colorado, 1956-1957" (Unpublished Doctor's field study, Colorado State College, Greeley, Colorado, 1958).

Also see NEA Research Division, "First-Year Teachers Evaluate Their Preparation for Teaching" (Washington: NEA, May, 1956), as quoted in *Ten Criticisms of Public Education*, p. 173.

future and what new materials and aids may be needed for teaching.⁴⁵ Their suggestions have immediate significance for the preparation of teachers of English.

In identifying new trends and experiments in education which seem significant for the future, the respondents listed the following related to the teaching of English: team teaching, use of lay readers, teaching machine attack on grammar, mechanics, spelling, reading, and vocabulary, use of educational television, more emphasis on composition, teaching writing through structural grammar, broadening the scope of English to "Language Arts," modifying the teachers' professional activities (fewer classroom hours and fewer students), ability grouping, and use of language laboratory.

They also mentioned that the following new materials most need development: programs for teaching machines, programmed materials not needing machines, self-instructional exercises and tests, tapes, films, records, video tapes, supplementary materials for enriching subject matter, individualized and differentiated materials, materials for ungraded classrooms, materials for teaching writing, materials for the slow learner, improved machines for teaching language, materials for teaching critical and creative thinking, and "complete packaging for training teachers," putting into convenient packets sets of materials to be used in pre-service and inservice training.

These lists may catapult into a new age some institutions preparing teachers. Because these developments are expanding so rapidly and are causing teachers to reconsider what they are doing about organizing and presenting their subject matter, prospective teachers should not only see the implications during their training but should also learn to evaluate and use with discrimination some of these newer methods and materials. Although many will learn much through inservice educational programs later, they should enter teaching somewhat knowl-

⁴⁵ Reported in a letter, May 20, 1961, to the Executive Secretary of the NCTE. This information was sent by the Educational Development Corporation, Palo Alto, California. Respondents to the questionnaire included university professors, national associations, school teachers, administrators, state education departments, state education associations, and educational publishers.

edgeable about such developments and their possible effectiveness.

In the most comprehensive survey to be mentioned here, the NCTE Committee on the National Interest presents in its report some of the findings of its inquiry into the adequacy of current programs for preparing teachers of secondary school English. The committee sent questionnaires to a nonselective list of 2,000 institutions of higher education. Usable responses to the questionnaire on courses and requirements in the English language were returned by 374 institutions. Usable returns to the questionnaire on requirements and preparation in literature and the teaching of literature were returned by 454 institutions. The fact that 80 more institutions were ready to report on their programs in literature may have relevant significance.

The committee found that, as of 1960:

Only a fourth of the colleges require a course in the history of the English language; only 17.4 per cent . . . require a course in Modern English grammar; fewer than 200 institutions are graduating teachers of English informed about modern language study; only about 41 per cent . . . require prospective teachers of English to complete a course in advanced composition; only 51.5 per cent require a course in the methods of teaching English.⁴⁶

From the extensive information about these requirements, the committee concludes that:

. . . the linguistic preparation of the prospective English teachers in the United States is grievously deficient. Whatever their preparation in other areas, it is seriously inadequate with respect to their concern with the teaching of the nature and use of English language, that is, with respect to grammar, usage, and composition. . . .

In short, most of the English majors who were graduated in June, 1960, and are now teaching in high school are simply not equipped either to deal with problems of teaching the language and composition or to keep up with current developments in the application of linguistics to the teaching of English. Unhappily, what is true of the class of 1960 is no less true of previous classes and hence of the great body of teachers of English now in English classrooms;

⁴⁶ NCTE, *op. cit.*, p. 60.

and it likely will be true of future graduating classes for some time unless the normally slow sequence of events can be modified.⁴⁷

Regarding secondary school teachers' preparation in literature, the committee found that:

More than fifty per cent of the colleges require future high school teachers who major in English to complete 18 to 24 semester hours in literature. More than two-thirds of the colleges require courses in English literature, American literature, and Shakespeare; only one-third require work in world literature. Only one-fifth of the programs specify the need for a course in contemporary literature or in literary criticism or critical analysis. Few institutions provide for the study of literature written for adolescents. More time is spent in methods courses on the teaching of literature than on the teaching of grammar and the teaching of composition combined.⁴⁸

The committee concludes that the prospective teacher is probably more adequately prepared to teach literature than the English language and composition. Notably lacking from the programs are required courses in world literature, contemporary literature, and literary criticism, and particularly a course in literature written for adolescents.

From the preceding and similar inquiries can be extracted the following recommendations that teachers and others believe should be especially included in programs to improve the preparation of future teachers of English:

English Language:

Courses in the history and structure of the language, including attention to modern English grammars and to usage, lexicography, and related studies

Composition:

Courses in basic and advanced composition

Literature:

A balanced program leading to the understanding and appreciation of both aesthetic and human values in literature, including some work in each of the following areas: surveys of

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 74, 75.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 75.

English, American, world, and contemporary literature; types of literature; Shakespeare; literary criticism; literature written for adolescents

Related Subjects:

Courses and activities in speech, dramatics, and journalism
Courses in psychology of learning and adolescence

Recent Developments:

Training in the critical evaluation and appropriate use of autoinstructional materials and methods, team teaching, lay readers, educational television

Methods of Teaching:

A program which, in addition to methods of teaching literature, includes attention to the teaching of reading, composition, language, critical and creative thinking

Methods of providing for individual differences, motivating students and planning and organizing classwork while maintaining control and discipline, and evaluating students' performances.

These inquiries only represent the voluminous literature on the preparation of teachers, literature far too extensive to be treated here.⁴⁹ Responses from beginning teachers should particularly remind colleges not to minimize the importance of their preparing teachers to face also the practical, often nagging,

⁴⁹ The following references may be of special interest: Autrey Nell Wiley, ed., *The Preparation and Certification of Teachers of English: A Bibliography (1950-56)* (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1956); see also the Committee's periodic bibliographies published in *College English*; "The Preparation and Certification of Teachers of English: A Symposium," *College English*, 18 (March, 1957), 295-309; Commission on Teacher Education, *Teacher Competence: Its Nature and Scope* (San Francisco: California Teachers Association, 1957); Committee on Undergraduate Programs, Arkansas Experiment in Teacher Education, *The Major in English* (1956); Alice Gill Scofield, "The Relationship Between Some Methods of Teaching Language Arts as Advocated in Methods Courses and as Practiced in the Classroom" (Unpublished dissertation, School of Education, Stanford University, 1955); J. Lloyd Trump, *Images of the Future: A New Approach to the Secondary School* (Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois, Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff of the Secondary School, 1959); Paul Woodring, *New Directions in Teacher Education* (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957).

problems arising almost daily. However superior a candidate's preparation in literature may be, if he cannot solve, for example, the fundamental problem of how to control his classes, he may never have a chance to give them the benefits of his sensibilities and his extensive knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of literature. If he cannot solve these problems in human relations and in planning and doing his teaching, he may soon be lost to teaching.

SAMPLE PREPARATION PROGRAMS

The next two chapters present detailed discussion of the academic and professional preparation of the prospective teacher of English. The sample programs discussed there illustrate, however, only the academic and professional requirements respectively. It seems appropriate to include here more comprehensive examples illustrating requirements in general education, the English major and minor, and professional education. The first two are university four-year programs. The others are five-year, fifth-year, and six-year programs.

All of these programs have been planned cooperatively by committees from departments of English, related academic departments, and the colleges and schools of education. Each fits the pattern recommended by the groups participating in the national TEPS conferences: approximately 40 per cent general education, 40 per cent the teaching major, minor, and related academic subjects, and 20 per cent professional education.

The patterns illustrate also what Woodring calls the "Basic Agreements in Teacher Education."⁵⁰ As a basis for a workable program of teacher education, Woodring lists the following agreements, given here only in part:

1. Every teacher, regardless of the subject or age group he is to teach, ought to be liberally educated . . .
2. The teacher of an academic field in high school should possess

⁵⁰ Paul Woodring, "Basic Agreements in Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, VI (March, 1955), 98-99.

a broad and scholarly knowledge of the field he is to teach. This should constitute not less than an undergraduate major and probably more . . .

3. In the course of his college education the teacher should come to see his own field in the proper perspective—in its relation to other areas of knowledge. (We disagree as to how this should be accomplished—we do not disagree about its importance.)
4. In addition to his liberal education and his major field of specialization, every teacher should have some minimum of professional preparation . . . :
 - a. The prospective teacher should have given careful thought to the meaning, purpose, and problems of universal public education . . .
 - b. He should have a thorough knowledge of the language and the learning process and this will include knowledge of the nature and extent of individual differences.
 - c. He should have some introduction to methods, materials, and curriculum organization and this knowledge should be closely related to his understanding of educational philosophy and his knowledge of the psychology of learning . . .
 - d. He should have some minimum period of supervised practice teaching . . .
5. To achieve the above objectives, it will be necessary to spend at least five college years in preparation for his profession . . .
6. Though the college education program may be broken by periods of teaching, it should be organized as a whole with the fifth year so planned as to avoid the duplication now all too common . . .
7. The planning of the curriculum for teacher education should be the joint responsibility of the professional educators and of scholars in various academic fields . . .
8. Even the best possible program of teacher education cannot produce beginning teachers who are fully competent in all aspects of their work . . .
9. Candidates for teacher education should be carefully selected on the basis of intelligence, scholarship, maturation, and the best available measures of personality and aptitude for teaching. Merely prolonging the period of training will not assure good

teachers if candidates of mediocre ability are admitted to the teacher education program. . . .

One other agreement that might well be reached would help put in proper perspective, especially for those who tend to consider anything labeled "professional education" an anathema: the dual nature of some of the courses comprising the professional preparation Woodring describes above. Courses in educational philosophy, history, sociology, and psychology could be considered to be what many of them actually are—courses in general education as well as in professional education.⁵¹ Similarly, courses in the methods and materials of teaching English and in practice teaching are often important extensions and reinforcements of the candidate's preparation in literature, grammar, and written and oral expression. Since some courses in professional education contribute significantly to general education and to academic majors and minors, the strictly professional content in the teacher education program is actually less than the 20 per cent recommended for the teacher's professional preparation.

The following sample programs illustrate also attempts by a few institutions to provide at least partial answers to some of the inescapable questions raised by the participants in the conferences on "The Basic Issues in the Teaching of English."⁵²

Ideally, how much college study of language and literature is desirable for the secondary school teacher?

What standard qualifications in English can be established for secondary school English teachers?

What is the responsibility of liberal arts colleges in the preparation of effective teachers of English?

What kind of training in teaching methods does the future secondary school English teacher need?

How can the Master of Arts degree be made more effective in the preparation of secondary school teachers?

⁵¹ For a contrary interpretation, see Miriam Borgenicht, "Teachers College: Extinct Volcano?" *Harper's Magazine*, July, 1961, pp. 82-87.

⁵² *The Basic Issues in the Teaching of English*, published as a supplement to *College English*, 21 (October, 1959).

FOUR-YEAR CONCENTRATION IN LANGUAGE ARTS

To prepare teachers of secondary school English in four years of college to meet the extensive responsibilities confronting especially the beginning teacher, some universities have established teaching "area" majors or concentrations in the "English Language Arts," a somewhat broader major than the conventional one in English. The core of the program is a substantial number of English courses. The candidate elects additional preparation in speech, drama, or journalism, subjects so closely allied to English in the schools that teachers of English are assumed to be prepared to teach them and to direct related school activities. These institutions are realistically trying to face the problems of preparing candidates not only to teach classes in these related subjects but also to have some acquaintance with directing plays, coaching debate teams, managing speech contests, working in libraries, and advising staffs publishing school newspapers and yearbooks.

The following program, called the Language Arts Concentration, has been established at the University of Kansas by an interdepartmental committee representing the departments of English, Speech and Drama, the School of Journalism, and the School of Education.⁵³ Candidates preparing to teach in the secondary schools enroll as juniors in the School of Education. However, they must have completed at least 50 semester credits in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and earned at least 60 grade points (A = 3 grade points, B = 2, C = 1). Before they are allowed to enroll for student teaching, they must have at least 1.5 grade point average (C+ to B-) in the courses listed in the Language Arts Concentration and 1.1 average in all courses taken. These minimums are appreciably higher than those required of students qualifying for the B.A. with a major in English in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences.

⁵³ Oscar M. Haugh and Kenneth E. Anderson, "The Language Arts Concentration: A New Program for Training Teachers of English, Speech, and Journalism," *University of Kansas Bulletin of Education*, 12: 3 (Spring Issue, May, 1958), 125-128.

The General Education Requirements, 47 semester credits, are approximately 38 per cent of the total program. Included are 17 semester credits in humanities and foreign languages (including 10 credits in English composition and literature); 15 credits in mathematics and science; 15 credits in social sciences; 19 credits in elective courses.

The Language Arts Concentration, 48 credits, is approximately 39 per cent of the total program.⁵⁴ Four optional areas of concentration are offered: English, Theater and Drama, Public Speaking, and Journalism. All candidates must have a basic preparation of 24 semester credits in English. Teachers preparing to teach English and speech or journalism do not have to elect an additional teaching minor. The university, therefore, is able to expand the Language Arts Concentration to a minimum of 48 semester credits. However, students may still elect the regular English major and a minor other than those in the English language arts area.

Each of the four options includes 24 semester credits in English. Students electing the English option are required to take at least 15 additional credits in English and 8 credits in speech. The other three options require the basic 24 credits in English plus an additional 24 credits in Public Speaking, Theater and Drama, or Journalism.

The Professional Education requirements, 22 semester credits, are approximately 18 per cent of the total program. They include, in addition, courses in educational psychology and measurements, methods and practice teaching, and modern social practices, offered in the Department of Sociology.

The chief feature of the program is that it prepares the prospective teacher of English in the conventional content of literature, composition, and grammar and at the same time provides reasonable background and competence in related areas that teachers of English are assumed to possess.

⁵⁴ The 10 semester credits of freshman and sophomore composition and literature and the two semester credits of fundamentals of speech are included in both general education and the teaching major. Thus, percentages total more than 100 per cent.

CONVENTIONAL FOUR-YEAR PROGRAM

The University of Wisconsin's program for teachers of English is for the conventional major in English. To qualify for admission to the School of Education, the candidate is required first to complete two years of general education in the College of Letters and Science and to achieve a "C+" or 2.5 grade-point average, an average higher than that required of other students in the College of Letters and Science. A candidate intending to minor in English must have achieved at least a 2.75 average in freshman and sophomore English courses. During his first two years the candidate may elect the sequence in general education required of candidates for the Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science or that for the program in Integrated Liberal Studies. The latter program is described briefly in the next chapter.

General education requirements for the B.A. degree total 75 semester credits. The general education program, about 39 per cent of the total, includes freshman composition, sophomore survey of literature, and United States history and institutions. In addition, the Bachelor of Arts program requires 24 credits in a foreign language (with provisions for giving credit for high school courses or passing proficiency examinations) and 33 elective credits from the humanities, social studies, and natural science.

After being admitted to the School of Education, the student must elect a teaching major and minor. Effective January, 1963, the state requires him to have a major of at least 34 semester credits and a minor of at least 22 credits; both programs must be approved by the institution.

The University of Wisconsin major in English, however, consists of 36 to 39 credits, 24 beyond the 12 to 15 credits of required general education courses in freshman and intermediate composition and sophomore surveys of literature.⁵⁵ The major and

⁵⁵ The B.S. freshman-sophomore sequence requires 15 credits in these years, including sophomore composition; the B.A. sequence requires 12 credits and does not include sophomore composition.

the minor constitute about 47 per cent of the candidate's four-year program. The 24 credits of the English major include two semesters of Shakespeare or Elizabethan drama, one in Chaucer or Milton, an elective in sixteenth or seventeenth century literature, one other literature elective, advanced composition for teachers, history of the English language for teachers, and one upper-division elective.

Students are advised to include courses in British and American literature of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Noteworthy features of the major are the advanced courses in composition and the English language offered only to English majors in the School of Education. Although these are not methods courses, they are designed to meet the professional needs of the prospective teacher of English.

The minor in English consists of at least 24 approved credits including freshman English, two semesters of sophomore literature, one semester of intermediate or advanced composition, a semester course in history of the English language for teachers, and a full year of one of the following: Shakespeare or Elizabethan drama, Romantic or Victorian poetry; 19-Century British Writers; major American poets and prose writers.

The requirements in professional education total 18 semester units, 15 per cent of the total program. Before the semester in which the student devotes a block of weeks to student teaching, he takes a course in child psychology and one in school and society.

Most candidates do full-day student teaching in their major and minor for seven weeks. Methods of teaching the major and minor and one area course in professional education are taught intensively at the beginning and end of the semester in which student teaching is done. During the semester of student teaching, the candidate also enrolls in one course each in learning, in methods of teaching his major, and in methods of teaching his minor.

To be eligible for the University Teacher's Certificate the candidate must, in addition to completing the program, be recommended by action of the Department of English as having achieved at least a 2.75 (B-) grade-point average in his English

courses and as having shown personal fitness for teaching. To be eligible for graduation and the Teacher's Certificate he must also have satisfactory proficiency in speech and satisfactory physical health and fitness.

These illustrative programs are but two versions of the many four-year patterns still dominant throughout the country. Full details are supplied in the catalogs of the Universities of Kansas and Wisconsin. Whatever the variations within the limitations of four years, many colleges and universities preparing secondary school teachers are in accord, however, on the importance of cooperatively planned programs requiring candidates to devote about 80 per cent of their studies to becoming liberally educated persons and to learning what to teach and about 20 per cent to their professional preparation. In many institutions these students must meet academic and personal standards higher than those applied to their classmates not preparing to teach. In short, such programs represent a step toward achieving the benefits accruing from Woodring's list of basic agreements already reached by many faculties contributing to the education of teachers.

FIVE-YEAR AND FIFTH-YEAR PROGRAMS

One important effort to improve the preparation of secondary school teachers is the development of five-year and fifth-year programs.⁵⁶ Although forty-seven states and most institutions still require beginning high school teachers to complete only four years of college, the trend in teacher education colleges and universities is toward developing programs involving at least a fifth year of college; several have already established six-year programs. Regarding the desirability of having more fifth-year programs, the participants in the conferences on the basic issues in the teaching of English raised the following questions:

⁵⁶ Five-year programs coordinate the candidate's preparation for teaching throughout his undergraduate and graduate years. Fifth-year programs offer courses in professional education and academic courses, especially for the candidate who as an undergraduate may not have planned his courses in accordance with requirements for a teaching credential.

What are the possibilities of spreading to the rest of the country such programs as the Master of Arts in Teaching at Harvard and Yale? Or such well-established fifth-year programs as are found in some states where a master's degree or equivalent is required of secondary teachers? Or the three-summer teacher training program of the state of New York? . . . Thoughtful consideration of the purposes and content of the M.A. program might make this degree much more serviceable for the secondary teacher and contribute to the whole sequential and cumulative nature of the ideal English curriculum.⁵⁷

Five-year and fifth-year programs are not new, of course. California established its requirement of five years of college for secondary school teachers in 1906; the District of Columbia did so in 1933; Arizona, in 1936; New York, in 1943; and Washington, 1951.⁵⁸ Nor is the number negligible. According to a directory of certain kinds of fifth-year programs published by the American Council on Education, almost 100 colleges and universities in 28 states have established the particular kinds of fifth-year programs listed in this ACE directory.⁵⁹ This number is in addition to the regular five-year programs in all of the accredited institutions in Arizona, California, Washington, and the District of Columbia, states requiring all secondary school teachers to have five years of college preparation. Only Arizona, California, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia require all beginning secondary school teachers to complete five years of college preparation prior to their first full-time teaching. The state of Washington requires candidates to complete at least one but no more than four years of full-time teaching in the public schools between their fourth and fifth college years to qualify for the standard credential. Connecticut, Indiana, New York, Oregon, among other states, also issue a provisional certificate to

⁵⁷ NCTE, *The Basic Issues in the Teaching of English*, p. 12.

⁵⁸ Elizabeth Boyter, "Institutional Appraisal of Five-Year Programs for the Preparation of Secondary School Teachers" (Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, School of Education, Stanford University, 1953), pp. 3-5.

⁵⁹ John D. Herzog, ed., *Preparing College Graduates to Teach in Schools*. Preliminary Edition, A Directory of Fifth-Year Programs in Elementary and Secondary Education Designed Primarily for Persons Who Did Not Prepare for Teaching as Undergraduates (Washington: ACE, 1960), pp. 48-49.

candidates at their completion of four years of college, but for the standard credential they require completion of a fifth college year within a specified number of years after candidates begin to teach. Hence, despite the fact that only three states and the District of Columbia actually require beginning secondary school teachers to complete five years of college, the five-year program has a history of more than half a century and, along with fifth-year programs, is well distributed throughout the country.

The increase in the number of fifth-year programs has been greatly accelerated since World War II by a complex of circumstances. The inescapable need of trying to counteract the teacher shortage has led to attempts to persuade liberal arts graduates to enter teaching through special fifth-year programs. Some college graduates who did not as undergraduates prepare for teaching now wish to qualify for teachers' certificates. Foundations have been giving strong support to institutions willing to experiment both with ways of bringing into teaching those college graduates who have not previously planned to teach and with various ways of preparing their regular candidates for teaching.

But widespread support for five-year programs is not new. Since at least as early as 1937, surveys of opinions expressed by educators, other scholars, state departments of education, institutions preparing teachers, and by teachers themselves have shown overwhelming support for five-year programs for the education of teachers.⁶⁰

And the support continues. In a recent committee report, Armstrong, Director of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, says that "the period is rapidly approaching when a minimum of five years of college preparation will be regarded as essential for all fully qualified elementary and secondary school teachers."⁶¹ In *New Directions in Teacher Education*, Woodring says that "although experimentation with improved four-year programs should continue, it seems probable

⁶⁰ Elizabeth Boyter, *op. cit.*, pp. 3-4.

⁶¹ W. Earl Armstrong, "The Teacher-Education Curriculum," *Working Papers for Participants in the Kansas Conference of NCTEPS* (Washington: NEA, June, 1959), pp. 41-42.

that some kind of fifth year of preparation will soon be required in all states." *Images of the Future*, the pamphlet prepared by a group appointed by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, clearly indicates that these administrators also assume that teachers in the future will have completed five years of college. The consensus among the participants in the national TEPS conferences on teacher education and among participants in the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth (1960) favored five years of preparation of teachers. And in *Goals for Americans*, the Report of the President's Commission on National Goals, John W. Gardner states that "by 1970 every state should require one year beyond the B.A. for new high school teachers."⁶²

Present five-year and fifth-year programs vary considerably. Each type seems to have its merits. But research on these plans is still too incomplete to offer much guidance. Four plans are described here briefly. At one university, two types are now being studied in a five-year experiment. Perhaps the results will produce some evidence that may eventually help colleges evaluate choices among plans.⁶³

THE CONTINUOUS FIVE-YEAR PROGRAM

The first type is basically a continuous five-year program that is common throughout California and is somewhat similar to programs in Arizona. One example is Stanford's.⁶⁴ Although this program is under the immediate supervision of a committee in the School of Education, it is cooperatively planned by the University Committee on Teacher Education composed of representatives of departments in the School of Humanities and Sci-

⁶² The President's Commission on National Goals, *Goals for Americans* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), p. 82.

⁶³ For brief descriptions of a variety of plans see the directory of the American Council on Education, *Preparing College Graduates to Teach in Schools*; Paul Woodring, *New Directions in Teacher Education*; The Fund for the Advancement of Education, *Decade of Experiment* (New York: The Fund, 1961).

⁶⁴ For a more detailed description of this program see Alfred H. Grommon, "Stanford University's Five-Year Program for the General Secondary Credential," *The Education of Teachers: Curriculum Programs*, pp. 309-315.

ences and of the School of Education. Through the work of this committee, through cooperative planning of teaching majors and minors, and the joint appointment of staff members who serve both in academic departments and the School of Education, the university tries to devote its full resources to the preparation of teachers.

The future candidate for the secondary credential enrolls as a freshman in the School of Humanities and Sciences in which he takes a four-year program for the A.B. degree. The state of California requires that an applicant for the General Secondary Credential must complete a minimum of 40 semester or 60 quarter credits of general education. To fulfill this requirement and also the university's, the candidate must complete a General Studies program as an undergraduate, mostly during his first two years. The General Studies program consists of approximately 88 quarter credits or 39 per cent of a total program of 225 quarter units. The program includes freshman English, history of Western civilization, a foreign language, and courses in the humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, mathematics or logic, and two senior colloquia in fields other than the student's major.

The state requires a teaching major to be a minimum of 36 semester or 54 quarter credits. The candidate at Stanford may elect one of three English majors: English literature, American literature, creative writing. The teaching major totals 80 quarter units or about 35 per cent of the program. Basic to all programs are Freshman English, Introduction to the English Language, Introduction to English Linguistics, Advanced Composition, Chaucer, Shakespeare, English Literature of the Renaissance, English Literature of the Restoration and Eighteenth Century, and English Literature of the Nineteenth Century, Literature for Adolescents, and a course in either dramatics or journalism. Candidates who elect to major in English literature or creative writing and who wish to complete a teaching major must also take at least two courses in American literature.

The major in American literature specializes in the surveys and Chief American Poets. The major in creative writing specializes in courses in writers and completion of at least 12 credits

in one of these programs: fiction, poetry, drama, or criticism.

The state requires a minimum of 20 semester or 30 quarter credits for a teaching minor. Stanford's teaching minor in English, including methods and student teaching, totals 47 quarter credits or 21 per cent of the total program. It covers Freshman English, Introduction to the English Language, Shakespeare, English Literature of the Nineteenth Century, two courses in American literature, Speech for Classroom Teachers, an elective in the English novel, Methods in the Teaching of English, and Student Teaching in an English class.

For his professional education, a candidate at Stanford is not officially admitted to the General Secondary Credential program until he applies for graduate standing. If during his fifth year a candidate continues as a graduate student in the Department of English, then he has to meet that department's requirements for graduate standing. If not, then he applies for admission to the School of Education. Although candidates who gain admission to the freshman class have survived keen competition, they have to achieve at least a 2.75 (B-) grade-point average as undergraduates in the School of Humanities and Sciences and have to be recommended by their major departments before they are admitted to graduate standing in the credential program in the School of Education. They also have to pass the examination for physical fitness and the requirement in speech proficiency.

A candidate usually enrolls in courses in professional education during his fifth year, but he is urged to take the professional courses in psychology, sociology, health, and methods in teaching his minor subject during his junior and senior years so that he may study some graduate courses in his teaching subjects during the fifth year.

The courses in professional education total 39 quarter or 26 semester credits, approximately 17 per cent of the total program. They include Social Foundations of Education, Psychological Foundations of Education, Health Foundations of Education, Audiovisual Laboratory, the American Secondary School, Directed Observations in the Public Schools, Methods of Teaching Major, Methods of Teaching Minor, and Practice Teaching in

both major and minor. Teaching Reading in the Secondary School is an elective.

In this type of continuous five-year program the candidate receives extensive preparation in general education and in his teaching subjects and related fields as he qualifies for his B.A. In fact, the candidate with a teaching major in English takes more English courses and courses in closely allied fields than does the candidate for the B.A. who is not preparing to teach. Furthermore, his teaching minor may be two to three times as extensive as the minor required by the Department of English of its majors who are not preparing to teach. In addition, the prospective teacher of English has significant reinforcement and extension of his academic major in his courses in the methods of teaching English and practice teaching, which are taught and supervised by a member of the faculty who has a joint appointment in the Department of English and the School of Education. The candidate devotes over 80 per cent of his five years to courses in the School of Humanities and Sciences.⁶⁵ This program is representative of the continuous five-year programs typically found in the three states and the District of Columbia that require the beginning secondary school teacher first to complete five years of college.

MASTER OF ARTS IN TEACHING

One of the basic issues discussed in the conferences on the teaching of English concerns the relationship of the Master of Arts degree to the preparation of secondary school teachers. Programs for the degree of Master of Arts in Teaching have been designed to achieve this relationship—combining graduate study of subjects to be taught and professional preparation. Most of these programs consist of a fifth year of college added to whatever undergraduate education candidates have already completed. While undergraduates, many of these candidates had no intention of preparing to teach. Sometimes, however, the fifth-

⁶⁵ The percentages for parts of the program presented here total more than 100 per cent because such courses as freshman English, methods of teaching, and practice teaching are counted in more than one segment.

year program may be well integrated with undergraduate study, even when completed in another institution. Well-known examples of this type are offered at Harvard and Yale.

Since 1936, Harvard has been offering a one-year program for graduates of approved liberal arts colleges. Now the program is conducted under the Twenty-Nine College Cooperative Plan. These undergraduate institutions recruit able liberal arts students who wish to become secondary school teachers. Whereas originally these students were recruited for the Harvard fifth-year MAT program, they are now attending a number of graduate schools.

Although initially the candidates took all of their courses in professional education at the universities, some of the cooperating colleges are now offering related introductory professional courses for those who intend to complete their preparation at the universities. The Harvard, Radcliffe, and Yale undergraduates who take these introductory courses do not have to duplicate them in graduate school. Candidates who have had similar introductory courses in the cooperating colleges may take the graduate schools' validating examinations in those subjects so that they may take advanced professional courses in the universities.

The Harvard degree is sponsored jointly by the faculties of arts and sciences and the Graduate School of Education. Two plans are available for the fifth-year student, but the following courses are basic to both: graduate courses in the Teaching Field—minimum of two half-courses;⁶⁶ one half-course from Comparative Education, History of American Education, or Philosophy of Education; Psychology and Measurement; Social Foundations of the American School; Curriculum and Methods in English; and Practice Teaching.

The Yale undergraduates devote their first two years to general education in the liberal arts. In the junior year they may elect a course called Basic Concepts of Education, and, in their senior

⁶⁶ A "half-course" is a one-semester course equivalent to the customary three- or four-credit semester course. A "course" is equivalent to the customary four- or six-credit two-semester course.

year, a course called Education in American Society. In the fifth year the program for the MAT provides a balance between courses in the subjects candidates are preparing to teach and such professional courses as those in secondary education, history and philosophy of education, educational psychology, child growth and development, the teaching of English, directed observations, and practice teaching.

A special feature occurs at the beginning of the fifth year. In some institutions it is called "September Service." The fifth-year students register prior to the opening of the university so that they may work in the local public secondary schools, attend faculty and departmental meetings, assist in clerical and non-academic kinds of work, become acquainted with what goes on during those crucial opening days of school, and in general get firsthand experience and background that will help them relate their fifth-year of preparation to what high school pupils, teachers, programs, and problems are actually like.

In summary, plans for the Master of Arts in Teaching degree may be either a fifth year simply added to a four-year undergraduate program or through the development of the Twenty-Nine College Cooperative plan and similar arrangements may offer a somewhat coordinated and continuous sequence for five years. As indicated earlier, brief descriptions of many of these plans appear in the directory, *Preparing College Graduates to Teach in Schools*.

THE STATE OF WASHINGTON PLAN

A third plan is used by the state of Washington, the type recommended by Armstrong in the committee report mentioned earlier: "The committee believes . . . that the five-year curriculum should be broken into two parts, each with its separate focus. The first part should be four years in length and should focus on preparing the teacher to begin to teach. The second part should be one year in length and should be given after one or more years of teaching experience. The two parts should be planned as a whole with the understanding that the curriculum

will not be completed until the fifth year has been taken. A time limit for completing the fifth year should, therefore, be set." ⁶⁷

This description fits the requirements of the state of Washington for its Standard General Certificate. The Washington plan has three phases. The first is comprised of the four-year undergraduate program that includes 60 quarter credits of general education, 40 quarter credits of professional education (including directed teaching), and 60 quarter credits of "Broad Areas of Concentration," such as health, language arts, social studies, science and mathematics, and fine and applied arts.

The second phase is the initial full-time teaching experience. After completing the four years of the first phase, the candidate is granted a Provisional Certificate, authorizing him to teach in the public schools. A school district is to assign him to the elementary, junior high school, or senior high school and to the subjects he is to teach in accordance with his college's recommendation based upon the kind of preparation he has had. This provisional certificate is valid for a three-year period. It may be renewed once for a three-year period, provided the candidate has completed a year of successful teaching and at least 12 quarter credits toward his fulfilling the fifth-year requirement.

By the end of three years—or six years if he has been granted the extension—he must have completed phase three, a fifth year at a teacher education institution. His program for this year is to be selected by him with the help of those who worked with him during his period of initial teaching and of his advisers in the recommending institution. During this fifth year he must take at least 45 quarter credits of courses, at least half of which are upper division and graduate courses. Upon the completion of at least one full year of teaching and a fifth year of college, he is granted the Standard General Certificate.

This plan has the additional advantage of providing for the college's follow-up study and supervision of the candidate while he is teaching full time. In this phase, the training institutions and the public secondary schools cooperate through an inservice education program for the beginning teacher. More will be said

⁶⁷ W. Earl Armstrong, *op. cit.*, p. 41.

about this part of the program in a later chapter. This coordination is further developed when the candidate returns to college for his fifth year. Thus, by the time he qualifies for his Standard General Certificate he has had a coordinated preparation for teaching and teaching experience extending over at least six years and perhaps as long as ten.

THE INTERNSHIP

The directory of the American Council on Education includes several examples of the fourth type of fifth-year program to be described here, that built around the internship. The following example is an experimental one offered at Stanford and is partially supported by a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education. The plan is designed exclusively for the college or university graduate who has a B.A. or B.S. degree, who seems to have the appropriate personal attributes for teaching, but who, in college, did not prepare to teach.

The program requires a fifth year of preparation, extending over two summers and a full year of internship and study. During the first summer, the candidate enrolls in the university for a full program. He takes appropriate courses in his academic teaching major and minor and two seminars in professional education to get somewhat prepared to teach as an intern in the fall. One seminar is in the history, problems, and issues related to the American public secondary school. The other is in the materials and methods of teaching his subjects. In addition, he observes and participates in classes in a summer school in a nearby public secondary school.

During the following year, he is employed as a part-time intern in a public secondary school. He teaches three or four classes each day throughout the school year and is paid proportionately as a beginning teacher in the district. He is guided by a cooperating teacher who also serves as one of his supervisors. He is supervised, too, by the director of the project, by a member of the university's academic department of his teaching

major, and by the educationist who is a specialist in the materials and methods of teaching his subject.

Throughout the year he also attends two evening seminars on alternate weeks. One week all interns meet in a seminar with representatives of the departments of anthropology, sociology, educational psychology, medicine and psychiatry, and education to discuss case studies of teachers and the problems the interns meet in their classes. On alternate weeks they meet in seminars according to their teaching subjects. Here they meet with their supervising teachers in the schools, a representative of the academic department, and the education specialist in the materials and methods of teaching their subjects. The group discusses the content, materials, methods, and problems related to the interns' teaching of their subjects.

During the second summer, the intern is again enrolled in the university as a full-time student. He takes additional courses in his subjects. He attends one professional education seminar in the philosophy and sociology of education and their relationship to his teaching. He has another seminar in the materials and methods of teaching his subject. In this course he devotes most of his time to preparing materials he will need for his own classes when he starts his full-time teaching in the fall. And he has further observations in a public secondary school summer session. When they are available, he visits classes similar to those he will be teaching on his own job in the fall. At the end of this second summer, he is granted the General Secondary Credential, and by this time he may have qualified also for a master's degree in education.

This plan is another way of building upon a strong undergraduate program in the liberal arts. The fifth year, however, is added rather than integrated with preceding college studies. But as stated in Stanford's proposal to the Fund, the program features "internships, increased use of successful experienced secondary school teachers, the closer integration of educational theory with practice, and the subject matter specialists from the various departments of the School of Humanities and Sciences and educationists working in teams with practitioners in the field."

SIX-YEAR PROGRAMS

The most recent trend indicating the resolve of universities to strengthen future teachers' preparation in academic subject matter as well as in professional education, particularly in extending the period of supervised practice teaching and internship, is the development of six-year plans. The number of these plans is increasing. One example is the University of Chicago's two-year graduate program for preparing candidates for teaching credentials and the degree of the Master of Arts in Teaching.⁶⁸

The plan was designed and is administered by the Graduate School of Education and the graduate faculties in the biological sciences, the humanities, the physical sciences, and the social sciences helping prepare teachers for the secondary schools. The program in each subject is directed by a coordinating committee comprised of members of the graduate academic department and one member of the staff in the Department of Education, who usually is also on the staff of the University High School. Thus the program and the candidate benefit from the coordinated resources of the graduate academic faculty, the Department of Education, the University High School, and the public schools in the area.

As stated in the descriptive bulletin, the "prerequisites for admission to the program include a Bachelor's degree with sufficient concentration in the teaching field to permit successful pursuit of graduate study in the appropriate department and evidence of the personal qualifications and the intellectual abilities essential to effective teaching and to scholarly inquiry." To be admitted for graduate study in English, the candidate must have completed a strong undergraduate major in English, including the study of Shakespeare and American literature.

During the four quarters of the first year, the candidate is in

⁶⁸ For a more detailed description see *The Education of Teachers*, Graduate School of Education, University of Chicago (March, 1960). The summary presented here is based upon the information in this bulletin.

For a general description of a six-year program see also G. K. Hodenfield and T. M. Stinnett, *The Education of Teachers*, "Nobody Asked Me, But . . .," pp. 128-132.

residence at the university. He begins two weeks prior to the opening of the autumn quarter to enable him to become familiar at an early date with the facilities of the university and the University High School related to his preparation for teaching. Throughout the first year he takes a full program of graduate academic courses. The prospective teacher of English must study at least eight English courses: four specified by the Department of English; four selected by the student and his adviser. As part of his work in two of his elective courses, he "must write Master's papers, one in English literature and one in American literature." Approximately one quarter of this year is devoted to a seminar in professional education in which he investigates "the implications for education of philosophy, psychology, sociology, curriculum theory, and research on teaching and learning." At the end of this year, the Department of English evaluates his competence in his teaching field, and the Department of Education and teachers in the University High School appraise his personal and professional fitness for teaching. His entrance into the second year of the program depends upon these ratings.

During the second academic year he is employed as an intern by a public high school in the Chicago area and is assigned about a three-fifths teaching load. As a student teacher he is assisted by career teachers in his high school and by members of the university faculties. Throughout this year he also investigates extensively some aspect of the teaching of English and spends about three hours a week in a seminar at the university to keep informed on recent developments in his field and to get other help from specialists among the university faculties. During the second summer, he returns to the university for a five-week institute to analyze and evaluate his preparation and teaching experience and to get needed help in his academic and professional training. His supervising teachers in his high school, his coordinator of the program for prospective English teachers, and other university faculty members continuously evaluate the candidate.

To complete his qualifications for the degree of Master of Arts in the Teaching of English he must submit satisfactory Master's papers of the kind mentioned earlier, pass a reading examination in French or German, and pass a final, two-part

examination in English "designed to test his ability to criticize a novel, a drama, or a group of lyrics and to analyze a work of rhetoric, literary criticism, philosophy, or history." When he has completed these requirements and is recommended for the two-year degree, the university will recommend him for certification in the state where he wishes to teach.

SUMMARY

In general, continuous five-year programs and carefully coordinated fifth-year and six-year plans seem to have several advantages over four-year plans:

1. When directed by a college or university committee on teacher education comprised of representatives of the academic departments, education, and the central administration, the programs benefit from a large measure of the full resources of the institution and of the cooperating public schools.
2. The candidate completes a strong undergraduate program for a B.A. or B.S. In some cases he may have a more extensive academic education than does the student not preparing to teach.
3. Approximately 80 to 85 per cent of his five or six years of college will be devoted to courses in academic departments and the rest to professional preparation.
4. The candidate takes graduate courses in his teaching subjects and related fields and demonstrates that he has the "intellectual abilities essential to effective teaching and to scholarly inquiry."
5. The candidate often acquires much more teaching experience in the public schools than is usually possible in the customary practice teaching. And in some arrangements the candidate's teaching is supervised by representatives of both the academic and education departments.
6. Institutions can probably do a better job of selecting qualified prospective teachers from among college seniors applying for

admission to graduate school than from among entering freshmen or juniors.

7. Internship programs characteristic of many fifth- and six-year plans have the following features ordinarily not found in conventional programs of student teaching:
 - a. Liberal arts faculties and master teachers in cooperating school systems help to educate teachers.
 - b. Teams of teachers cooperate to train future teachers.
 - c. Liberal arts colleges help to recruit and prepare qualified candidates for teaching.⁶⁹

GENERAL SUMMARY

This chapter is intended to help colleges and universities examine their purposes, programs, and resources for preparing teachers of secondary school English. The following chapters present more detailed discussions of the academic and professional preservice training and of inservice and follow-up programs. Some important problems need special attention.

The continuing shortage of teachers forces not only the entire profession but also society to recognize the gravity of this national problem. Teachers and administrators in the secondary schools and the colleges and universities must recognize in particular the self-perpetuating nature of the teaching profession and hence must contribute a far greater number of able students to the supply of competent teachers if the quality of public education is not to deteriorate disastrously. All should heed the evidence indicating that high standards of selection at each point of entry into programs of teacher education improve both the quality and the number of graduates. These responsibilities do not belong to the departments of education only. They rest with the entire educational system.

Training institutions should work with state and national academic and professional organizations to improve the procedures and standards for certifying teachers and assigning them in

⁶⁹ This information was obtained from Joseph M. Cronin, Cubberley High School, Palo Alto, California, and research assistant on the staff of the Stanford Secondary Education Project. For this information Mr. Cronin examined 21 internship programs throughout the country.

their schools. States should continue their growing practice of appointing advisory committees that include representatives of academic departments in the colleges and universities as well as of professional education groups.

The President's Commission on National Goals recognized the scope of the problem that society and institutions preparing teachers face. In speaking for the Commission's deep concern with the future of American education, Gardner says: "Love of learning, curiosity, self-discipline, intellectual honesty, the capacity to think clearly—these and all of the other consequences of a good education cannot be insured by skillful administrative devices. The quality of the teacher is the key to good education."⁷⁰

During the 1960's the number of classroom teachers will have to be expanded by almost one-third to take care of population growth. *To meet both growth and replacement needs, we must recruit at least 200,000 new teachers every year for the next ten years.* These are conservative figures. A number of education leaders have urged a minimum of 50 professionals (teachers, counselors, administrators, etc.) to every 1,000 students. We are far from that today.

But an adequate *number* of teachers is only part of our problem. The other part is *quality*. We must raise standards of recruitment and training.

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⁷⁰ *Goals for Americans*, p. 82.

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APPENDIX

1960 Certification Requirements for Teachers of High School English

The following table and accompanying notes have been slightly adapted from those presented in John H. Fisher's report published in *College English*, January, 1961. The survey was made by Eugene E. Slaughter, professor of English at Southeastern (Oklahoma) State College. Mr. Fisher, formerly professor of English at Indiana University, is now Executive Secretary of the Modern Language Association. The information was obtained from the 50 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. The fragmentary information about the per cent of

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teachers having substandard credentials and several of the notes on the discrepancies between this report and the certification manual prepared by T. M. Stinnett and W. E. Armstrong have been omitted from this version.

Expressed in semester hours

U—Unspecified

State	(1) Minimum for full English load	(2) Minimum for part English load	(3) Standard requirement (when larger than minimum)	(4) Allowed for Speech, etc.	(5) Profes- sional Education
Connecticut	30	U	U	12	18
D.C.	30	U	U	U	18
Florida	30	U ^b	36	9	20
North Carolina	30	U	U	U	18
Oregon	28 ^c	U	U	U	24
Arkansas	24	6	U	6	18
Delaware	24	8 ^e	U	6	18
Hawaii	24	U ^f	36	U	24
Indiana	24	U	40A ^g	6	18
Kansas	24	U ^h	U	U	20
Kentucky	24	U	30 ⁱ	U	18
Louisiana	24	U	U	0	18
Maryland	24	U	U	6	16
Mississippi	24 ^j	U	U	6	18
Missouri	24	U	U	5	18
New Jersey	24	18	U	6	18
New York	24 ^l	U	30	6	18
Ohio	24	U	U	0	17
South Carolina	24	U	U	U	18
Tennessee	24	U	30	6	24
Virginia	24	U	36A	12	15
West Virginia	24	18 ^m	U	2	20
Wyoming	24	15	U	6 ⁿ	20
California	20	U	36	U	22
Montana	20	U	30	3	16
Alabama	18	U	30	6	24
Massachusetts	18	9	U	U	12
Nebraska	18	U	24	3	18
New Hampshire	18	6	30	12	15
New Mexico	18	U	24	5	18
North Dakota	18	10 ^t	U	U	16
Pennsylvania	18 ^u	U	U	6	18
Texas	18	U	24 ^v	U	24

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State	(1) Minimum for full English load	(2) Minimum for part English load	(3) Standard requirement (when larger than minimum)	(4) Allowed for Speech, etc.	(5) Profes- sional Education
Alaska	16 ^w	U	U	U	16
Illinois	16	U ^x	32	U	16
Nevada	16	U	30	U	18
Arizona	15 ^z	9	24	U	24
Idaho	15	U	U	U	20
Iowa	15	U	30 ^{aa}	0	20
Maine	15 ^{bb}	U	24	3	24
Michigan	15 ^{cc}	U	24	U	20
Minnesota	15	U	24	U	18
Oklahoma	15 ^{dd}	U	32 ^A	8	21
Rhode Island	15	U	U	0	24
South Dakota	15 ^{ee}	U	24	9	20
Wisconsin	15 ^{ff}	U	24	6	18
Colorado	12 ^{gg}	U	18	5	20
Georgia	12 ^{hh}	U	30	6	18
Utah	12	U	20	0	22
Vermont	12	U	24	U	18
Puerto Rico	"major"	U	U	U	24
Washington	U ⁱⁱ	U	40	U	24

^b In Florida, in order to carry a part load in English, a teacher must "be working towards regular certification concerning English." Furthermore, "Specific requirements are not enforced if applicant presents statement of completion of program from an approved institution."

^c A & S * records 28 semester hours as the minimum, which our data sheet apparently confirms. Oregon requires a teacher of English to meet a "norm" of 24 semester hours beyond the freshman level, including composition, English and American literature, development of the English language, and speech.

* T. M. Stinnett and W. E. Armstrong, *A Manual of Certification Requirements* (Washington: NEA, 1959). Referred to in these notes as A & S.

^e A & S does not record that with 8 hours a teacher may teach one English class and with 12 hours, two. Eighteen hours are being proposed for 1 to 3 sections.

^f A & S records 24 hours of English required for a part load and 36 for a full load.

^g A stands for *Area*, i.e., a combined major in English, speech, journalism, etc. Indiana also has a 60-hour area major.

^h A & S records a 15-hour minor for a part load. Our data sheet was returned marked "Class A."

¹ Kentucky also has a 48-hour area major. A & S records 18 hours for a part load and 30-48 for a full load.

¹ Mississippi reports that its minimum is about to be raised to 30 hours.

¹ In New York, "Any provisionally or permanently certified teacher may teach one class in an area other than that in which he is certified." New York also permits a teacher with a provisional certificate, granted upon the basis of 24 hours, to teach a full load of English. The provisional certificate must be converted into a permanent certificate within five years. In 1960, New York raised its major from 24 to 36 units to become effective in 1963.

^m The North Central Association is raising its minimum to 18 hours, and West Virginia indicates that it is doing likewise.

ⁿ Wyoming lists "6 hours in each area" as permitted in related work.

^t A & S records 15 hours as permitting a partial load and 30 as permitting a full load. Our sheet indicates that majors and minors are determined by the graduating college and that the 10- and 18-hour minimums are maintained by state accreditation procedure.

^u A publication returned with our data sheet indicates that in Pennsylvania, beginning October 1, 1963, the minimum requirement for a provisional certificate in English will be 36 hours.

^v Texas has two plans, a 24-hour major with 18-hour minor, or a 36-hour area major.

^w Alaska has no minimum of its own, but accepts the Northwest Association's accrediting standards.

^x Illinois reports, "Approval for a part load is sometimes granted with less than 16 hours."

^z A & S records 15 hours as needed for a part load, 24 hours for a full. Our data sheet indicates 9 hours for one class in English; 15 for a regular certificate; 24 for a major.

^{aa} In Iowa, with 30 hours, a teacher may be approved to teach all typical high school subjects in English and also additional specialized English courses.

^{bb} The official Maine regulation states merely that faculty members "are well prepared in their own teaching fields." Our data sheet indicates that the blanket certificate issued requires a 24-hour major and 15-hour minor or 40-hour area specialization.

^{cc} Michigan reports that its minimums are expected to rise to 18 or 20 hours.

^{dd} A & S records 32 hours as required for a standard certificate in English. Our data sheet and an accompanying letter indicate 32 hours, including 8 hours of related subjects, for the standard certificate, but 15 hours permits a teacher otherwise certified to teach a part load indefinitely or a full load for one year. This minimum was to become 18 hours in September, 1962.

^{ee} A & S records 15 hours for a part load, 24 for a full. A letter accompanying our sheet states that "almost 100%" of the English teachers in South Dakota meet the 15-hour requirement.

^{ff} Wisconsin reports that its 15-hour minimum has been raised to 22 and its 24-hour major to 34.

^{gg} Colorado reports that its 12-hour minimum may be raised by September, 1960.

^{hh} Our sheet reports for one or two classes in English "some credit," for three or more "12 semester hours." A & S records only the 30-hour major, which applies in any case only to graduates from outside the state. Within the state, college departments certify to the state department on the basis of their own curricula.

ⁱⁱ Washington specifies no hour requirements, only that 35% of the college preparation must be in general education, 35% in areas of learning applicable to high school, 20% in professional education, and 10% elective.

PREVIEW

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOLS OF THE FUTURE

OVERVIEW

GENERAL EDUCATION

PREPARATION IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

PREPARATION IN WRITING

PREPARATION IN LITERATURE

PREPARATION IN SPEECH

PREPARATION IN JOURNALISM

THE MINOR IN ENGLISH

ACADEMIC COMPETENCE OF NONMAJORS

GENERAL SUMMARY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER 5

The Academic Preparation of the Teacher of English for the Secondary School

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOLS OF THE FUTURE

GRANTED, teachers must be well trained in their subjects. Much that is necessary to improve public education depends upon the nature and quality of the future teacher's academic preparation. The preceding chapter presents the outline, *A Standard of Preparation to Teach English*.¹ To a certain extent, the introduction to this outline and the outline itself describe the kind of person who should be the end product of four, five, or six years of college education. The question, then, is this: What kind or kinds of college programs are likely to contribute most to such a teacher's academic qualifications?

Answers are futile unless a college faculty also considers the kind of secondary school in which this graduate is likely to be teaching five, ten, or fifteen years after he enters the profession.

Written by Robert C. Pooley, University of Wisconsin; Alfred H. Grommon, Stanford University; J. N. Hook, University of Illinois; Louise M. Rosenblatt, New York University; Harold B. Allen, University of Minnesota; Karl W. Dykema, Youngstown University; Paul Roberts, Cornell University; and Harlen M. Adams, Chico State College.

¹ See pp. 181-182.

In warning colleges against preparing teachers for schools of the past, Woodring states:

A sound program of teacher education must prepare teachers for the schools of the probable future rather than for those of the certain past. However obvious this principle may be, it has not provided the basis for most of our teacher education. In the great majority of our colleges, teachers still are being prepared for . . . classrooms of 1940 or 1950 rather than for the kind of schools which most probably will come into existence in 1960, 1970, or 1980.²

Although efforts to anticipate schools of the probable future may be risky, colleges cannot ignore the evidence in newer practices and discernible trends in public secondary schools.

EXAMPLES

Citing examples of newer methods and materials now found in some schools is not intended to suggest that they are widely used or that they are necessarily the most desirable. But those who educate teachers of English for the secondary schools must consider them. New methods and materials usually make their way slowly. The authors of *Education for College* state that "much high school teaching does not differ markedly from what it was fifty years ago. Despite all the efforts of schools of education, a great many high school teachers teach the old subjects in pretty much the old ways."³ Inertia, comfortable commitment to the established and the familiar, suspicion of innovations and fads, and closed-minded attitudes, not only among the experienced teachers but also among some beginners, impede if not block entirely introduction of the unsettling new.

Although many of the teachers observed by the authors of *Education for College* may still be teaching as the authors think people taught in 1910, the evidence suggests that materials and

² Paul Woodring, *New Directions in Teacher Education* (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957), p. 71.

³ Albert R. Kitzhaber, Robert M. Gorrell, and Paul Roberts, *Education for College* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1961), p. 15.

methods used today differ considerably from those presumably used at the beginning of this century: courses of study developed throughout the country, current concepts of the nature of the English language, textbooks, reports of supervisors, and the topics and issues frequently reported and discussed in the literature and in local, state, and national meetings of teachers of English.

Probably some members of college faculties have difficulty visualizing the future high school so little resembling their own. They may have less difficulty, however, if they have children attending schools already using some of the innovations, or if they just assume that classroom schedules in this new school will more nearly resemble schedules in colleges than those in the traditional high school. Features of the future high school have implications for members of both academic departments and education departments who plan and teach programs for prospective teachers. Both distinguished academicians and educationists have contributed to these developments.

1. Those responsible for the future teacher's academic preparation should consider first the nature of the society and the culture in which the candidate will be living and teaching. The authors of *The Pursuit of Excellence* and *Goals for Americans* give considerable attention to future conditions. Our culture is likely to be dominated by science and technology even more than now.⁴ Though problems of the two cultures discussed by C. P. Snow⁵ may lessen in the next decade or two, the future teacher of English clearly should be literate in science and technology, be informed about the nature of society, and have some notion of his role as a humanist and as a citizen of the world. Unquestionably, knowledge will continue to expand rapidly, probably at an explosive rate as Man plus Machines further outdistances Man

⁴ For an analysis of the "influence which the present cultural shift toward the oral-aural" is having on the study and teaching of language and literature see the article by Walter J. Ong, "Wired for Sound: Teaching, Communications, and Technological Culture," *College English*, XXI (February, 1960), 245-251.

⁵ C. P. Snow, *The Two Cultures and the Scientific Revolution* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1959) and *Science and Government* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961).

without Machine.⁶ The teacher needs a firm foundation in the humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences to learn how to learn, to feel somewhat at home in his environment, and to keep informed through continuing self-education.⁷

2. The continuing increase in the number of students and the continuing shortage of teachers, as discussed in the previous chapter, will still plague the future high school.

But despite increased enrollments, the future comprehensive public high school will still be thought of as being largely a college preparatory institution. At least fifty per cent of public high school graduates will seek admission to some kind of institution of higher education.⁸ However, the future teacher of English—a required subject—must be prepared to teach the whole range of students attending public schools, not just those preparing for college.

3. The future school will continue to search for excellence. In the history of our public education, the early 1950's may mark the turning point in the nation's readiness to recognize the importance of developing to the highest level possible each child's potential, especially his intellectual capacity and particularly the talents of the ablest students. But as *The Pursuit of Excellence* and *Goals for Americans* point out, the public and the schools must continue to agree that any conception of excellence recognizes many kinds of achievement occurring at many levels.

4. Changes already started in public secondary schools will speed the search for excellence. One is the use of flexible sched-

⁶ A. H. Blatt, Queens College, New York, is quoted as having said that "In many parts of the area with which I am most familiar—the natural sciences—the rate of change is so great that unless a professor is willing and able to learn as much at least every ten years as he learned up to and through his doctorate, his useful half life as a professor will be just about five years. . . ." *Edpress Newsletter*, XXIII (July 24, 1961), Educational Press Association of America.

⁷ For a statement of the complications and implications for teachers, see Margaret Mead, *The School in American Culture* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1951), particularly pp. 40-41.

⁸ According to a report published by the Dept. of HEW, "Six hundred and four of 1,000 pupils graduated from high school in 1960 entered college the following year." This is "an increase of 170% over the number who entered college in 1932." See *Progress in Education U.S.A.* (Washington: Dept. of HEW, DE 10005-61-B), p. 19.

uling. In these schools, students no longer follow the traditional schedule of the same class at the same hour for the same number of minutes for the semester or entire school year. Flexible schedules are built upon modules or blocks of time for individual students to enable them to make the most of their abilities and interests by spending more time on some subjects than others. Just as college students take courses, laboratories, and seminars meeting for different lengths of time on different days and for different purposes so, too, will students in the new high schools.

a. Flexible schedules will enable the school to use more fully the individual talents and interests of the teacher now available only to his own students. In the new school, he may lecture part of the day to 100 to 150 students in large classes to take advantage of his special abilities in teaching Shakespeare, composition, critical thinking, or modern English grammar. Later in the day he may meet with small groups to discuss the lecture, a set of compositions, or a poem. Then at other times he will have conferences with individual students. This arrangement, obviously, is not unlike that in college: professors lecturing to large classes, meeting with small sections of the lecture group, and conferring with individual students. And as in college, in this new school the teacher of English may have assistants for clerical and other nonteaching duties and may use lay readers to help evaluate compositions written by his students.

b. Flexible scheduling and use of assistants will permit students to do more independent studying than is possible within rigid schedules. Schools will have rooms and cubicles for reading, viewing, listening to tapes and recordings, writing, working alone on automated learning devices and programmed self-instructional materials not needing machines or under supervision in different kinds of laboratories. Libraries will be larger and will be used more fully than now for independent study.⁹

5. The entire educational structure of the new high school may change radically. In 1948, Robert C. Pooley, in an article

⁹ For a look at future school facilities see Amo De Bernardis *et al.*, in cooperation with the U. S. Dept. of HEW, Office of Education, *Planning Schools for New Media* (Portland, Ore.: Division of Education, Portland State College, 1961).

entitled, "English in the Coming High School," anticipated society's eventual demand that schools replace the "rigid system of grade placement" with a system based upon students' recognized individual differences in mental age, intelligence quotient, and abilities in reading, arithmetic, science, and language. He advocated programs based upon the principle of teaching students "what they need when they need it, regardless of grades and years, and to measure their progress not by the clock or the calendar but by what they can do."¹⁰

Professor Pooley's prediction is now beginning to be fulfilled, as is indicated in the following description of the program in the Melbourne, Florida, High School:

To give all students—slow, bright, and average—the education and training they need, to develop their intellectual capacities to the fullest, the schools will have to do more than revise the curriculum (though this is the starting point). They must learn how to deal more effectively with individual differences among the students and among the teachers and how to utilize teachers in more efficient ways. On both scores, some notable progress is being made, adding up to a thorough reorganization of the classroom and of the school itself.

* * * *

Ideally, schools should allow each student to go ahead in each subject as rapidly as he can. Where abolition of grades is combined with an emphasis on intellectual excellence, the result is extremely interesting. Perhaps the most stimulating high school in the U. S. is located in Melbourne, Florida, near Cape Canaveral. Melbourne High has completely abandoned grades. Each course is given on four levels—"advanced college placement," "accelerated," average, and remedial—and each student's admission to each course is determined solely by how much he knows; how much he knows is measured by his score on an achievement test—not on an I. Q. test. Students thus may leapfrog the usual sequence of courses; conceivably, a student could be taking calculus at the advanced college placement level and at the same time be put in a remedial English course in which reading is being taught at the fourth grade level. To accommodate students who move through the usual curriculum at a rapid pace, the school offers a large number of courses at the college

¹⁰ *English Journal*, XXXVII (June, 1948), 284-291.

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level, for which college credit may be granted. It also offers a wider range of courses than most high schools—e.g., Chinese and Russian in addition to French, German, Spanish, and Latin. Melbourne High Principal B. Frank Brown has even substituted the motto "in search of intellectual excellence" for the school emblem (a bulldog) embossed on the pencils sold in the school's canteen. . . . Proximity to Cape Canaveral, in Brown's view, does not account for the plan's success; he claims that any high school anywhere in the country with a large enough student body—e.g., 1,200—can do the same thing.¹¹

The future English teacher must know sufficiently the structure and range of his subject and the psychology of individual differences and the learning processes. Only then can he adapt to the range of students' differences in his classes in a conventional high school or to the flexibility of such programs as that at Melbourne High School.

6. This future teacher should also be prepared to use educational television, one method of teaching large classes and of trying to compensate for the shortage of teachers. In *Goals for Americans*, Gardner states that "By 1970, every school in the nation should be equipped for instruction by television; and the advantages and limitations of educational television should be universally understood. Properly used, television could bring superb lectures and other presentations to school children throughout the nation."¹²

7. The teacher is also likely to use with discretion certain automated teaching devices, programmed self-instructional materials, and self-correcting exercises for individualizing his teaching of common patterns of sentences, punctuation, grammar, spelling, or other aspects of English that lend themselves to programmed learning. In creating materials for programmed learning he may find, as B. F. Skinner has said, that "composing a set of frames can be an exciting exercise in the analysis of knowledge." The future English teacher should be trained to

¹¹ Charles E. Silberman, "The Public Business: The Remaking of American Education," *Fortune*, April, 1961, pp. 8, 10.

¹² The President's Commission on National Goals, *Goals for Americans* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), p. 89.

make this kind of analysis and presentation of knowledge and skills. Being able to use programmed self-instructional materials in his academic and professional education courses throughout his college program would help him learn. According to the report, *Programmed Learning and the Educational Process*:

A college student may find that some or all of his course in logic, German, psychology, or anatomy is on a "program." Teaching machines are in use in varying extent at Harvard, Oberlin, Hamilton, Dartmouth, Earlham, Hollins, Indiana University, University of Arizona, University of Illinois, University of Pittsburgh, The Ohio State University, and the University of Southern California. A high school student may use a program in his course on algebra, trigonometry, or French. Even an elementary school student may find some of his arithmetic or spelling course is taught by machine.¹³

But references to programmed materials being used in college English courses and courses in professional education other than psychology are hard to find.¹⁴

8. This new teacher may be teaching in a school that has an Advanced Placement Program in English, offering twelfth grade students with special ability a course equivalent to college freshman English. In addition, seniors are likely to be studying, for college credit, courses in the humanities, philosophy, and advanced courses in literature emphasizing close analysis of mature selections.

9. Through teaching Advanced Placement courses and participating in programs of inservice education, such as those directed by the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board, the future teacher will be working more closely with colleges and universities than before. Articulation of the entire educational system should be nearer reality.

How many of these innovations will be adopted in schools throughout the nation and how soon remain to be seen, of course. But all those mentioned here are now being used. In many cases,

¹³ Annice L. Mills, ed., *Programmed Learning and the Educational Process* (New York: Thomas Alva Edison Foundation, 1961), p. 5.

¹⁴ One university Department of English has used in some sections of its remedial freshman English course Joseph C. Blumenthal's *English 2600* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1960).

probably most, the experienced teachers had to learn new materials and techniques through inservice education, an important means of continuous training discussed in detail in Chapter 7. Even though colleges and universities cannot be expected to prepare beginners to meet all future developments, they certainly should look ahead and prepare teachers accordingly.

A relevant book for all interested in education at any level, including the education of teachers, is Jerome S. Bruner's *The Process of Education*.¹⁵ Although the participants at the conference reported in this book had gathered to discuss the teaching of science, the content applies to all learning. College faculties contributing to the academic and professional preparation of teachers will find valuable the discussions of important principles of the learning process: structure, readiness for learning, intuitive and analytic reasoning, and motives for learning.

Concerning the meaning of structure in the sense in which he is using the term, Professor Bruner states, "Grasping the structure of a subject is understanding it in a way that permits many other things to be related to it meaningfully. To learn structure, in short, is to learn how things are related." As an example of the importance of structure in the learning of language, he discusses a child's learning the nature of the sentence:

The often unconscious nature of learning structures is perhaps best illustrated in learning one's native language. Having grasped the subtle structure of a sentence, the child very rapidly learns to generate many other sentences based on this model though different in content from the original sentence learned. And having mastered the rules for transforming sentences without altering their meaning—"The dog bit the man" and "The man was bitten by the dog"—the child is able to vary his sentences much more widely. Yet, while young children are able to *use* the structural rules of English, they are certainly not able to say what the rules are.¹⁶

Professor Bruner also points out that certain considerations may establish a structure of the fundamentals of a course or a

¹⁵ (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960.) This book is a report of a Woods Hole conference of thirty-five scientists, scholars, and educators who met in September, 1959, to "discuss how education in science might be improved in our primary and secondary schools."

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 7, 8.

program that will help the learner relate new problems to these principles meaningfully. He identifies principles that apply not only to an individual subject but also to an entire program of teacher education:

. . . the curriculum of a subject should be determined by the most fundamental understanding that can be achieved of the underlying principles that give structure to that subject. Teaching specific topics or skills without making clear their context in the broader fundamental structure of a field of knowledge is uneconomical in several deep senses. In the first place, such teaching makes it exceedingly difficult for the student to generalize from what he has learned to what he will encounter later. In the second place, learning that has fallen short of a grasp of general principles has little reward in terms of intellectual excitement. The best way to create interest in a subject is to render it worth knowing, which means to make the knowledge gained usable in one's thinking beyond the situation in which the learning has occurred. Third, knowledge one has acquired without sufficient structure to tie it together is knowledge that is likely to be forgotten. An unconnected set of facts has a pitifully short half-life in memory. Organizing facts in terms of principles and ideas from which they may be inferred is the only known way of reducing the quick rate of loss of human memory.

Designing curricula in a way that reflects the basic structure of a field of knowledge requires the most fundamental understanding of that field. It is a task that cannot be carried out without the active participation of the ablest scholars and scientists. . . .¹⁷

Although Bruner is talking about education in the elementary and secondary schools, his comments apply equally well to college courses and programs. If the ablest scholars and scientists are needed to help schools apply these principles to school subjects, then surely they should apply them also to their own courses and programs.

The program should ensure that in the process of his education the future teacher recognizes the concept of structure in effective learning and teaching.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 31-32.

OVERVIEW

The pattern of academic preparation for prospective teachers of secondary school English, then, focuses on the answers to four questions: What kind of person should the teacher be? What should he know? By what means should he acquire this knowledge? How should he be prepared to meet the immediate and future conditions in the schools? The simplicity of these questions, however, conceals the complexity of the problems they raise.

As the sample programs in the preceding chapter illustrate, college preparation of teachers of English consists of three main areas of instruction: general education, academic major and minor, and professional education. Ralph W. Tyler tries to correct the common viewpoint that these are distinct segments of a teacher's education:

. . . the task of educating teachers is commonly discussed in oversimplified and inadequate terms. Only three aspects are commonly identified. We talk as though the job is only to provide three parts—general education, education in the teaching field, and education in professional matters. This simple analysis overlooks the present and future development in the American school and in the guiding conceptions of professional education. It is becoming increasingly clear that the changing nature of the American school curriculum and the nature of teaching make it necessary to see the interrelationships of what has been divided up into general education, education for the teaching field, and professional education.¹⁸

Recognizing the interrelatedness of the elements of a student's education is important. But to identify each segment and discuss it in detail, each is defined separately below.

General Education: This segment is the teacher's cultural and academic background begun in the home and in secondary

¹⁸ Ralph W. Tyler, "The Education of Teachers: A Major Responsibility of Colleges and Universities," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*; Official Report of the Second Bowling Green Conference of NCTEPS (Washington: NEA, 1958), p. 234.

school, broadened and deepened in college. Important questions are these: What is essential in the general education of a teacher of English? What content beyond the essential is highly desirable? How much time can be allocated to the teacher's general education? How can elements comprising general education be closely related to the teacher's preparation in his academic major and minor and in professional education? How does the college *know* that its program of general education is fulfilling its stated purposes?

Academic Major or Minor: This is the teacher's knowledge of the English language, composition, and literature. Leading questions are these: What proportion of time should be given to courses in literature, the English language, composition, and related subjects and skills? How are the facts of language best presented? What proportion should be devoted to English literature, American literature, literature of other languages in the original or in translation, and to literature written for children and adolescents? What proportion of time can be assigned to learning specific knowledge of English subject matter and developing skills in writing and speaking?

Professional Education: What does the prospective teacher need to know about the adolescent as a human being and a student, about the learning process, about the place of education and the role of the public secondary school in American society, the relationship of his subject to programs in the schools? What skills in teaching does he need to have, especially in teaching English? What proportion of the student's college time should be allotted to preparation in professional education? Within this time, how much should be given to the subject matter of professional education, to specific methods of teaching, and to experiences in the public schools? To what extent do courses in education contribute to the goals of general education? How can the general education and the professional reinforce each other?

Of these aspects of a student's college education, his general education and his English major and minor will be discussed in this chapter; professional education is discussed in the following chapter.

GENERAL EDUCATION

As Woodring says in his discussion of the "Basic Agreements in Teacher Education," no one disagrees with *why* a teacher needs a liberal education in order to see his own subject in relationship with other fields of knowledge. The disagreement occurs over *how* this teacher can most effectively acquire his liberal or general education.

The term "general education" is rather broadly accepted as one basis of a total education. Throughout the national TEPS conferences the consensus was that, as Warner G. Rice of the Department of English Language and Literature of the University of Michigan expressed it, "General Education, however defined, was by common consent accepted as a good thing."¹⁹ This section will attempt to examine what is commonly meant by "general education" in the preparation of the teacher of English, to illustrate some specific plans and procedures, to comment briefly upon current practices, and to offer some recommendations.

The goals of general education have been variously expressed. The Harvard Report, *General Education in a Free Society*, makes this distinction between general and special education:

The term, general education . . . does not mean some airy education in knowledge in general . . . nor does it mean education for all in the sense of universal education. It is used to indicate that part of a student's whole education which looks first of all to his life as a responsible human being and citizen; while the term, special education, indicates that part which looks to the student's competence in some occupation.²⁰

Clarence H. Faust says, "General education appears . . . to be a preparation of youth for dealing with the personal and political problems with which all men in a democratic society are confronted."²¹

¹⁹ *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*, p. 20.

²⁰ Harvard Committee on General Education, *General Education in a Free Society* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1945), p. 5.

²¹ Clarence H. Faust, "General Education: Its Nature and Purposes," *General Education in Transition* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1951), p. 57.

A more detailed statement is made by Paul L. Dressel and Margaret F. Lorimer in their summary of their investigation of writings on general education:

The purposes of general education are to prepare men and women for a satisfying personal life, happy family and social relationships, and responsible citizenship in a free society, by acquainting them with our common cultural heritage, by helping them to integrate the subject matter of related disciplines, and by developing skills, abilities, and values which will enable them to cope more effectively with their personal problems and those of the society in which they live.

General education focuses on preparation for the common activities of men as citizens, workers, and family members and is commonly contrasted with specialized education, which aims at preparation for a vocation. Indeed, much of the initial support for general education was generated by a reaction against specialism and vocationalism.²²

The Harvard Committee states that a major purpose of a general education is to help the student acquire certain traits of mind characteristic of a person who has a liberal education: (1) the ability to think logically, to draw sound conclusions from premises; (2) the ability to express oneself effectively so as to be understood by others; (3) the ability to make relevant judgments focusing the whole range of ideas upon the area of experience; and (4) the ability to discriminate among values by being aware of different kinds of values and of their relative importance.²³

For the purposes of this chapter, general education may be appropriately called that part of a student's education which provides background and makes him a generally cultured, responsible person; special education for him is that which contributes to his command of the English language and of literature necessary to his becoming a competent teacher. Obviously, these two segments of his education are interrelated.

²² *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960), p. 570.

²³ *General Education in a Free Society*, pp. 64 ff.

SAMPLE PROGRAMS

A program of general education designed specifically for the teacher of English would contradict the spirit of a general education. None was found in the catalogs of over twenty-five institutions examined for the preparation of this section. In a number of institutions, however, requirements of general education are sufficiently flexible that the prospective teacher of English may elect a proportionately greater number of courses in areas more closely related to language and literature than to the other fields included in the program. All proponents of general education insist upon a distribution of requirements among the humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, and mathematics.

This survey of catalogs reveals four basic settings or programs of general education. Within these settings exists such a variety of patterns that the illustrations given below must be taken as merely single instances of each:

Example I. General Education in an institution devoted exclusively to teacher education: Western Washington College of Education.

Of 192 quarter credits required for graduation, 74 quarter credits (38 per cent) are assigned to general education, broadly distributed among orientation in art, music, and library; fundamentals of mathematics, psychology, the sciences, and speech; composition and literature; geography and history; physical education and health.

Among these general education courses several seem hardly distinguishable from the professional. These would not appear in curricula of liberal arts colleges. The college specializing in teacher education may justly claim that knowledge and skills required of all teachers also constitute part of their general education. Nevertheless, committees directing these programs must ensure that content and experience in liberal subjects are not neglected.

Example II. General Education as a part of the curriculum of an independent liberal arts college which offers a program leading to a teacher's certificate: Oberlin College.

Because statements in the *Oberlin College Bulletin*, 1959-1961,²⁴ defining the nature and purposes of the college's liberal arts education express the intention of many programs of general education and show the interrelatedness of general education and academic majors, they are quoted here:

THE LIBERAL ARTS EDUCATION

Liberal arts training is for general resourcefulness, leadership, and ability to solve problems on whatever level or in whatever situation. It is a training which equips students to meet demands of intelligent citizenship in our complex society and prepares them for the fullest measure of successful living. Although vocational preparation is not its primary objective, the liberal arts college is intensely "practical." In this rapidly changing American society the best practical "job-insurance" is not narrow training in specific skills but broad training in general capabilities.

* * * *

AIMS OF OBERLIN COLLEGE TOWARD ITS STUDENTS

- To train them in the methods of thinking and in the use of the main tools of thought;
- To acquaint them with the main fields of human interests and to direct them into the acquisition of knowledge therein;
- To guide them in the integration of knowledge;
- To afford them intensive training, and to encourage creative activity, within a chosen field;
- To prepare them for further study or (within certain limits) for occupation after college;
- To establish in them the habit of continuous scholarly growth;
- To develop their power to enjoy, and to create the beautiful;
- To develop their physical and mental health;
- To develop their social resourcefulness;
- To develop their moral and religious life;
- To prepare them for intelligent, effective, and loyal participation in the life of the family, community, nation, and the international order.

Seven areas of instruction constitute the college's liberal arts program required of all candidates for the bachelor's degree: the physical sciences; the biological sciences; psychology; the social sciences;

²⁴ Pp. II-3-4.

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language, mathematics, and logic; literature, the fine arts, and music; philosophy and religion.

A total of 124 semester credits is required for graduation, of which one-third is the minimum requirement in general education. Noticeable are the traditional nature of this program and the practical provision for recognizing the joint responsibility of the secondary school and the college in giving students a comprehensive general education. This feature may be seen particularly in the use of proficiency examinations and the entrance requirements showing the college's recognition of preparation in English composition, foreign language, and mathematics.

Example III. General Education in the college of liberal arts of a university which admits students as juniors to a professional school of education: University of Wisconsin.

Students in the University of Wisconsin preparing to teach in secondary schools follow the patterns of general education required of all students in the College of Letters and Science. Two programs are offered, both leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science given by the School of Education, which does not give the B.A. One pattern requires the election of subjects within areas similar to those in programs of general education in the great majority of liberal arts colleges. A summary was given in the preceding chapter.²⁵

The second pattern is a highly integrated program of studies particularly designed to advance the goals of general education. This program consists of 46 semester credits of studies, augmented by a minimum of 14 elective credits, to comprise the 60 credits of courses to be completed in the first two years. A sequence of four semester courses in each of the three major areas of learning is presented, the courses being integrated as to sequence and cross-integrated as to fields. The humanities offers the courses called Greek and Roman Culture, Medieval and Renaissance Culture, European Culture: 1750-1850, and American Culture: 1850-.

The social studies contribute courses in Early Man, Transition to Industrial Society, Modern Industrial Society, and the International Scene.

In the sciences a student enrolls in Physical Universe, Earth Science, Biology I and II.

²⁵ See pp. 193-195.

These sequences total 42 semester credits. Four additional credits in English composition, required in the first year, complete the 46 credits.

This program is offered to 300 entering freshmen as one of two options by which they may fulfill the university's requirements in general education. About 25 per cent of this group intend to become teachers. The program is designed to offer a broad introduction to the areas of knowledge expected of a teacher. All these courses are required of students enrolled in the Department of Integrated Liberal Studies.

Examples of general education requirements in universities having five-year programs of teacher education are given in the preceding chapter.

Example IV. General Education planned and taught by the faculty of a university school of education: New York University, School of Education.

To be graduated from New York University's School of Education a student must earn 128 university credits, 60 of which must be in general education. Since the general education program includes some courses in the subject ultimately becoming the candidate's major, it actually consists of 50 credits, plus 10 credits contributing to the major.

The core curriculum of the general education program consists of six basic areas. In each, the student must earn at least 10 credits. Each core has a "Gateway Course," an introduction to the subject area required of all students. Since each gateway course carries four credits, each student earns a total of 24 required credits in specific courses. He earns the remaining six credits in each area by electing courses from approved lists. Following is a list of core areas and gateway courses:

<i>Core</i>	<i>Gateway Course</i>
The World of Nature	Selected Areas of Science
Man's Cultural Heritage	American Culture
Human Development	Introduction to Psychology
Problems of Contemporary Society	Economics, Sociology, Government
Communication in Human Living	Mass Media
The Arts and Man	Literature and Fine Arts

SUMMARY

Concerning general education in the preparation of teachers, the volume *Teacher Education for a Free People* gives some facts and raises some pertinent questions. This study reports that general education programs for teachers range from 10 to 85 per cent of the total undergraduate programs for prospective teachers. This range has little meaning, however, until "general education" is defined and applied to specific colleges. More reliable estimates show that from 30 to 40 per cent of the total undergraduate program is usually assigned to general education.²⁶ The national TEPS conferences recommended 40 per cent. The examples offered above and those in the preceding chapter conform to this recommendation.

The authors of *Teacher Education for a Free People* raise several important questions:

- a. What knowledge, understanding, and skill are needed in effectively meeting the range of personal and social situations faced by all individuals? Does the curriculum help the student to develop functional use of such understanding and skill?
- b. What added knowledge and skill in the academic fields are needed by the teacher if he is to have that depth of background and understanding necessary to help children and youth deal with life situations at their level of maturity? Does the curriculum provide for development of the needed competence to use this understanding and skill in guiding learners?

To these, four other questions should be added: How does a college *know* whether its program of general education is fulfilling its stated purposes? What measures does a college take to see whether each required course and approved elective is actually attempting to make its advertised contributions to the program? Does the faculty recognize the interrelationships between the program of general education and the other segments of the future teacher's preparation? Does a particular type of program

²⁶ Donald P. Cottrell, ed., *Teacher Education for a Free People* (New York: AACTE, 1956), pp. 136 ff.

have any demonstrable advantages in achieving the purposes of a general education?

Curiously and unfortunately, while consensus grants the importance of the aims of general education, evidence of the fulfillment of the purposes is difficult to determine, often inconclusive, and sometimes disappointing. Dressel and Lorimer summarize as follows their review of research evaluating the outcomes of general education:

All evaluations of general education courses and programs show that the changes in students which are actually achieved fall far short of anticipation. This is particularly true when the ultimate concern is effective living in a democracy. It is still true when lesser criteria are accepted, such as exhibiting a continuing interest in the various general education areas by keeping up on current events, by reading about current developments in science, by attending or participating in cultural events, or even by demonstrating the ability to write correctly and effectively. Apparently, general education experiences are not yet sufficiently focused on the attainment of general education objectives to bring about permanent changes in habits and behavior. Any college staff which engages in a comprehensive evaluation study will reach this conclusion. If it then undertakes to revise the program to overcome the noted deficiencies, it will have sensed the essential spirit of general education, which requires a continual seeking for a better way of producing an effective individual and citizen in a democratic society.²⁷

An almost universal aim of general education in American colleges and universities is to influence the values by which college students live and judge experience. The evidence on the influence of programs and courses upon students' values raises questions about faculties' assumptions concerning the effectiveness of their programs and courses. Philip E. Jacob summarizes as follows the report of his survey of the impact upon students' values made by college courses and teaching in the social sciences:

This study has discovered no specific curricular pattern of general education, no model syllabus for a basic social science course, no pedigree of instructor and no wizardry of instructional method which should be patented for its impact on the values of students.

²⁷ *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (1960), p. 580.

Student values do change to some extent in college. With some students, the change is substantial. But the impetus to change does not come primarily from the formal educational process. Potency to affect student values is found in the distinctive climate of a few institutions, the individual and personal magnetism of a sensitive teacher with strong value-commitments of his own, or value-laden personal experiences of students imaginatively integrated with their intellectual development.²⁸

Each of the preceding programs was undoubtedly designed by a faculty for greatest effectiveness. The evidence above indicates, however, that patterns of organization and individual courses by themselves do not seem to influence students' values significantly.

Programs in colleges engaged chiefly in training teachers include several courses directly related to the professional roles of the teacher. Liberal arts colleges and universities, on the other hand, give priority to breadth and depth of subject matter content. Which kind of general education in the long run produces the most effective teachers is yet unknown. In summarizing his study of the characteristics of teachers, David G. Ryans states that differences in effectiveness of teachers do not seem to be related to the kind of college they attended.²⁹

Long-range research may reveal great superiority of one plan over another, but such a result seems unlikely. When all the human factors involved are considered, the control of a small portion of the content of education seems a negligible matter. Much more important, perhaps, is creating in the mind of the candidate a recognition of the values of general education *when he is pursuing it*. To this end new patterns of core areas and integrated liberal education are created. Until colleges and universities take into account recent educational developments in patterns of general education and in efforts to determine its influence upon students, the general education of the future teacher of English may vary only in detail from present programs.

Currently, the quantity appears to vary between 35 and 40 per

²⁸ Philip E. Jacob, *Changing Values in College: An Exploratory Study of the Impact of College Teaching* (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1957), p. 11.

²⁹ David G. Ryans, *Characteristics of Teachers* (Washington: ACE, 1960), p. 394.

cent of the undergraduate education. To this figure may be added 10 to 15 per cent for courses taken by the student as electives to enrich his general background. The content varies in detail and quantity of distribution. But all programs examined require English composition, literature (English, American, or world), social sciences, natural sciences, mathematics, foreign languages, additional courses in humanities. This content is offered in separate subject courses, in interdepartmental area courses, and in integrated programs of study. Up to the present, there is no clear indication that any one pattern produces teachers of marked superiority.

But one factor stands out. According to Ryans' study of teachers, outstanding teachers have, among other qualities, superior intellectual abilities.³⁰ Research on characteristics of college students reported in *The American College*³¹ indicates that in some cases the differences among characteristics of some college seniors "seem primarily to be functions of qualities already present in the students as freshmen rather than products of different courses of study." This conclusion reemphasizes the importance of school districts' sending their best graduates on to college to prepare for teaching and of all college instructors' recruiting the able undergraduate students for the teaching profession.

Recommendations. The new emphasis upon the search for academic excellence applies not only to schools but also to colleges and universities. Coordination of school and college programs should work both ways. Too often colleges seem to think that only the schools' programs are "negotiable" in discussions of articulation. Present discussions seem to be concerned almost exclusively with getting high school students properly prepared for college freshman English. Changes now occurring in the secondary schools, especially for the academically talented, indicate that consequential changes may now have to be made in the colleges, particularly in programs of general education. The recommendations here are based upon some of the literature on general education, some of the research on the outcomes, and

³⁰ *Ibid.*

³¹ Nevitt Sanford, ed., *The American College* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1962), p. 867.

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influences the high school of the future may have upon college programs of general education. The recommendation of the TEPS conferences that approximately 40 per cent of a future teacher's undergraduate college program be devoted to general education should be followed.

If students are to achieve the stated goals, colleges must not only carefully plan programs and related educational experiences but also involve students in establishing these purposes. One example of an institution that undertook, as Dressel and Lorimer recommend, a comprehensive examination of its entire undergraduate education is reported by Robert Hoopes and Hubert Marshall in *The Undergraduate in the University*.³² This report tells why and how the Stanford faculty examined its undergraduate program and, as a result, developed its present program of General Studies and established a Committee on General Studies to supervise the program. Through such study college faculties may find increasingly effective ways to achieve the aims of general education.

Some courses in general education are more closely related than others to the teaching of English. Relevant to English are such fields as philosophy, Western and world civilizations, history of ideas, history and appreciation of art and music, history of England, American history, and foreign languages and culture. If these fields are not included among the general education requirements, prospective teachers of secondary school English should be urged to elect some of them.

Because an important outcome of these programs is to develop a student who can think, general education courses should directly teach thinking. Faculties should not assume that students will acquire incidentally the necessary attitudes and skills. Research indicates that critical thinking can be taught and that for many students it must be taught directly.³³

³² (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1957.)

³³ Howard R. Anderson and Frederick Marcham, *Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies*, 1942 Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Washington: NEA); Edward M. Glaser, *An Experiment in the Development of Critical Thinking* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 843, 1941). For further discussion of teaching critical thinking, see p. 342.

The emphasis in schools upon academic excellence should not affect just college admission. Excellence in preparation should also lead to differentiations within the framework of required programs and courses.

1. The presence of thousands of entering freshmen with advanced placement or advanced credit or both, especially in freshman English, is influencing freshman and sophomore courses. Harvard grants sophomore standing to a first-year student who qualifies for advanced placement in three subjects. Other institutions allow a student up to a full year of college credit for high achievements examinations. All colleges and universities should consider adjusting general education requirements for students with superior preparation.
2. Seniors in high school may take (for high school credit) enriched courses in the humanities, philosophy, and advanced literature. What adjustments will colleges make in general education requirements for students who have distinguished themselves in these high school courses?
3. Recent developments in the teaching of mathematics, science, and foreign language instruction have led the schools to revolutionary changes in content and method. Colleges often state requirements in terms of traditional courses and measure proficiency or achievement with traditional examinations. Where will these students be placed in general education programs? What happens to these students when they are enrolled in college courses taught by conventional methods?
4. A few universities now permit selected high school students recommended by their principals to take regular university courses in summer sessions. What adjustments are later made when these students become regular college students?

To identify students' proficiencies in subjects and fields required in general education programs for proper placement or exemption, colleges must develop appropriate placement and proficiency tests. The University of Chicago, for example, has long used placement tests to measure a new student's prepara-

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tion for college courses in six fields comprising the program of general education. The university tailors his program according to the results of these examinations.³⁴

Independent study should be a part of the program of general education. An increasing number of freshmen will have been doing independent study in high school, particularly during their senior year.

Ability grouping in freshman English helps accommodate top students. Some institutions assign a certain percentage of their best freshmen to special sections. Others provide honors programs for the ablest students. At least one university offers its superior freshmen seminars taught by senior members of the faculty.

Requirements in history should either be reorganized or expanded to include courses in world civilizations. Too long have introductory history courses in general education programs been limited to the study of Western civilization. Either the scope of the introductory courses—already crowded, to be sure—should be enlarged to encompass world civilizations, or sophomore courses in world civilizations should be established and required. As the recommendations in the preceding chapter indicate, teachers of English need courses in literature of the Far East, the world of Islam, Africa, India, and Latin America as part of their general education and academic major.

Students should be encouraged, when feasible, to study abroad as part of their general education. Some institutions have regular programs of study in foreign countries.³⁵

Courses in general education should make students aware of the rapid expansion of knowledge in many fields and of the need to keep informed of at least general trends. To this end, instructors should present the structure of their fields of knowledge so

³⁴ *University of Chicago, Announcements: Undergraduate Programs, 1959-1960*, p. 53.

³⁵ Stanford University, for example, has its own centers in Stuttgart, Tours, Florence, and Tokyo. The European centers offer courses in foreign language and other areas in the General Studies Program required of all candidates for the B.A. Consequently, the student who qualifies for study abroad loses no time in completing his requirements for graduation. Stanford estimates that over 30 per cent of its undergraduates will in the course of four years have studied in its centers overseas.

that general education students will learn how to fit new developments and details into the organization and basic concepts of the field and to see the interrelationships between the humanities and the other disciplines.³⁶

Instructors in general education courses should develop competence in "programming" appropriate parts of their courses. Public schools are using programmed materials, with or without self-teaching machines, in mathematics, spelling, grammar, and some other fields. Colleges and universities are using them in courses in foreign languages, psychology, logic, anatomy, statistics, mathematics. Programming appropriate segments of courses individualizes students' learning and frees instructors to devote their talents more fully to other aspects of their courses.

Instructors in general education courses should help recruit able students for the teaching profession. In his study of the characteristics of teachers, Ryans found a significant relationship between teachers' academic records in college and their attitudes and competence as teachers.³⁷ On the basis of his own research and a large body of other studies, Ryans offers the following list of clues for institutions preparing teachers:

Superior intellectual abilities, above-average school achievement, good emotional adjustment, attitudes favorable to pupils, enjoyment of pupil relationships, generosity in the appraisal of the behavior and motives of other persons, strong interests in reading and literary matters, interest in music and painting, participation in social and community affairs, early experiences in caring for children and teaching (such as reading to children and taking a class for the teacher), history of teaching in family, family support of teaching as a vocation, strong social service interests . . . appear to apply very generally to teachers judged by various kinds and sets of criteria to be outstanding.³⁸

³⁶ Stanford's senior colloquia, a special feature of the General Studies Program, are examples of how students may be helped to learn how to learn in fields outside their majors. Each candidate for the B.A. must elect during his senior year two colloquia *outside* his major field. These classes are limited to fifteen students each. The purposes of this requirement are to make sure the senior has an opportunity to work in small classes, is given breadth in his education at the very time when most of his program is highly specialized, and reinforces his knowledge of how to learn in a new field.

³⁷ David G. Ryans, *op. cit.*, p. 394.

³⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 366.

Programs of general education should be protected against any undesirable influence resulting from increased specialization and the dominance of graduate schools. Neither the professional phase nor academic specialization should eclipse or diminish in any way the program of general education. Earl J. McGrath believes that the trend toward specialization in college and in graduate schools is causing the decline of liberal education.³⁹ If McGrath is right, programs of general education should be protected against this influence. As indicated throughout this book, no more than 20 per cent of a secondary school teacher's college preparation should be allocated to strictly professional matters. Furthermore, with the trend toward five- and six-year programs most, if not all, of the professional program is in the graduate years. Almost the entire undergraduate program is devoted to general and academic preparation.

Instructors teaching courses in general education should work closely with secondary schools. Reassuring evidence of existing cooperation between teachers of English in high schools and colleges appears in the reports by the NCTE Committee on High School-College Articulation.⁴⁰ An additional development to improve relations and strengthen the teaching of humanities in the public schools is through the John Hay Fellows Program, which, in the words of Charles Keller, the director, "speaks up and puts up for the humanities in the form of year fellowships and summer institutes" for "able and ambitious high school teachers and administrators" to provide them with opportunities for intellectual growth.⁴¹ The National Science Foundation fellowships are providing similar opportunities for teachers of mathematics and science. Instructors teaching general education

³⁹ Earl J. McGrath, *The Graduate School and the Decline of Liberal Education* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959).

⁴⁰ See the Committee's reports published in the *English Journal*: Article No. 1, "What the Colleges Expect," L (September, 1961); Article No. 2, "High School-College Liaison Programs: Sponsors, Patterns, and Problems," LI (February, 1962); Article No. 3, "But What Are We Articulating With?" LI (March, 1962); and in *College English*: Article No. 4, "A Blueprint for Articulation," XXIV (February, 1963).

⁴¹ From a talk given by Professor Keller at the 1961 Conference of the Massachusetts Commission on the Academically Talented, May 16, 1961.

courses should welcome opportunities to participate in these programs as a means of improving the quality of public education and of becoming acquainted with the problems and opportunities facing teachers in the schools.

In sum, colleges should continue to improve general education courses by questioning assumptions and testing hypotheses and results. The existence of a "program" could imply a coordination among its parts which for students does not exist in fact. Evidence supports the effectiveness of keeping students informed on the purposes of the program and of particular courses and of focusing carefully planned courses upon the program's objectives.

Whatever the course, it should be organized to acquaint students with the definition and structure of the field of knowledge represented by its historical development, its contributions to man, its major figures and their work, its major problems and issues, its methods of solving problems, and its relationships to other fields of knowledge.

PREPARATION IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The prospective teacher of English should, in addition to his preparation in general education, have extensive training in his teaching major: in the English language, in composition, in literature, in speech, in dramatics, and in journalism. Diverse as his professional responsibilities are, though, he is a teacher of the English language as a medium of communication through oral and written composition, as a finished artistic product through the teaching of literature, and as a phenomenon that makes society possible. He is a teacher of that language, which is to a growing extent the international language of governments, business, and scholars.

Ironically, one of the anomalies in the traditional preparation of teachers of English is that they have been given virtually no instruction in the nature of language. As reported in the preceding chapter, the NCTE Committee on the National Interest found in its survey of the courses and requirements of 374 institutions preparing teachers of English that only a fourth of the

colleges and universities require a course in the history of the English language, only about 17 per cent require a course in modern English grammars, and fewer than 200 institutions are graduating teachers of English who have had any modern language study. In summarizing the extensive information gathered, the committee concluded that prospective teachers of English throughout the United States are seriously deficient in their linguistic preparation. Even the most recent graduates "are simply not equipped either to deal with problems of teaching language and composition or to keep up with current developments in the application of linguistics to the teaching of English."⁴²

Typically, graduating English majors have been given one or two semester courses in language. They are likely to have a course in grammar, either instruction in the supposed niceties of English expression or an exploration of the more abstruse nomenclature of traditional grammar. In view of what scholars have learned about language in the past half century, such preparation is shockingly inadequate. It leaves the English teacher ignorant of a large portion of his field. Surveys of experienced teachers' recommendations for the improvement of the preparation of future teachers of English show that these teachers give primary importance to courses in the study of the English language. In its outline of the standards of preparation to teach English, quoted in Chapter 4 (see pp. 181-182), the Committee on the National Interest states that the first academic requirement of a teacher of English is his knowledge of language.

If the teacher of secondary school English is not given this kind of preparation to fulfill his responsibilities as the teacher of the English language, who in the schools will be? Certainly not the teachers of mathematics and science. Teachers of foreign languages may know something about the linguistics of their subjects but not necessarily of English. Teachers of social studies may know something about semantics but probably nothing about the history and structure of English. The cultural purpose of education is that the pupil should become aware of the more significant aspects of his environment; increasing emphasis is

⁴² *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, p. 74.

therefore put upon the natural sciences, mathematics, and social studies in revisions of curricula. But the most important phenomenon seems to be ignored: language. To be sure, pupils study "English" in one form or another in all twelve grades, but hardly as a phenomenon. Consequently, unless future teachers of English are adequately prepared to teach the English language, it is not likely to be taught in the public schools throughout the United States as a phenomenon that is the basis of society and, in fact, distinguishes men as human beings.

DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS' TRAINING IN LANGUAGE

In the nineteenth century the preparation of the teacher of high school English included some kind of information about the English language. To many of those responsible for this preparation, the need seemed to be met by the usually rigorous grammatical training offered in the secondary school itself. But others, on college and normal school faculties, thought that another kind of preparation was necessary. As usable textbooks appeared, specific courses appeared in various institutions to provide future teachers with information about the English language.

Liberal arts colleges and universities tried to achieve this purpose by requiring or recommending a course in the history of the English language. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century, this kind of course used several textbooks based upon the already solid corpus of data produced by the then recent research in Indo-European philology. In the early 1900's the course pattern remained the same. Popular textbooks were the short and complete editions of the history of the language by Oliver Farrar Emerson, Otto Jespersen, George Philip Krapp, and George McKnight.⁴³ Those by Albert Croll Baugh (1935) and Stuart

⁴³ Oliver Farrar Emerson, *The History of the English Language* (New York: Macmillan and Company, 1910).

Otto Jespersen, *Growth and Structure of the English Language* (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner; New York: G. E. Stechert & Co., 1905); *Essentials of English Grammar* (New York: H. Holt and Company, 1933); *The System of Grammar* (London: G. Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1933).

Robertson (1934) were so successful that both appeared later in revised editions.⁴⁴ Then a basic change in the point of view in such courses occurred when some instructors adopted as a textbook Albert H. Marckwardt's *Introduction to the English Language*, published in 1942.⁴⁵ Marckwardt presents in his reversed chronological treatment of the historical information an almost thoroughly inductive study of the development of the sounds and grammar of English.

In 1935, the National Council of Teachers of English sponsored a survey of the training in the English language offered by 373 colleges and universities.⁴⁶ A course in the history of the language was then being offered by 67 per cent of the universities, 39 per cent of the teachers colleges and normal schools, and 28 per cent of the small colleges. In 1960, the NCTE Committee on the National Interest made a similar survey of 374 institutions.⁴⁷ In a quarter of a century some changes occurred, of course, in the number of institutions offering courses in the history of the language. The universities increased to 77 per cent, the teacher training colleges increased to 65 per cent, but the small colleges decreased to 26 per cent. These changes, however, have not yet been extensive enough to guarantee adequate training in the

George Philip Krapp, *The Elements of English Grammar* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1908); *Modern English, Its Growth and Present Use* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909); *The English Language in America* (New York: The Century Company, for the Modern Language Association of America, 1925); *The Knowledge of English* (New York: H. Holt and Company, 1927); *A Comprehensive Guide to Good English* (Chicago: Rand, McNally & Company, 1927).

George Harley McKnight, *English Words and Their Background* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1923); *Modern English in the Making* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1928).

⁴⁴ Albert Croll Baugh, *A History of the English Language*, a revised edition (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957).

Stuart Robertson, *The Development of Modern English* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1934); 2nd edition revised by Frederic G. Cassidy, 1955.

⁴⁵ (Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1942.)

⁴⁶ Harold B. Allen, "The Language and Preparation of English Teachers," *English Journal*, XXV (April, 1936), 323-324; "Teacher-Training in the English Language," *English Journal* (College Edition), XXXVII (May, 1938), 422-430.

⁴⁷ *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, pp. 60-75.

English language for today's graduates of institutions preparing teachers of English.

In normal schools and in their successors, the teachers colleges, the emphasis was placed upon grammar. These language courses were essentially an uncritical, disciplined review of the tenets and content of traditional Latinate grammar, with constant inference that rules of this grammar constituted the final authority for good usage. Indeed, for both teacher and student the study of English usage was held to be identical with the study of grammar. Two of the textbooks reported in 1935 included "Review Grammar" in their title. Although, in 1960, only one of these, Smart's, was reported in use,⁴⁸ the majority of colleges and universities reported using other books likewise oriented toward traditional English grammar.⁴⁹ But the adoptions of textbooks presenting new points of view based upon recent studies in the field of linguistics increased conspicuously.

This decline in the number of institutions offering courses consisting mainly of a review of prescriptive grammar by means of drills has resulted largely from the growing acceptance of an objective attitude toward the facts of contemporary English language, particularly toward the relationship between grammar and usage. The scholarly work of William Dwight Whitney, Yale Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology in the late nineteenth century,⁵⁰ the books on usage by Thomas R. Lounsbury,⁵¹ Whitney's successor at Yale, and the various books by George Philip Krapp⁵² had helped both by their content and point of

⁴⁸ Walter Kay Smart, *English Review Grammar* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1925, 1930, 1931, 1940); John Edwin Wells, *Practical Review Grammar* (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1928).

⁴⁹ *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, p. 69.

⁵⁰ William Dwight Whitney, *Language and the Study of Language* (New York: Charles Scribner and Company, 1867); *Oriental and Linguistic Studies* (New York: Charles Scribner and Company, 1872-1874); *Essentials of English Grammar* (Boston: Ginn & Company, 1877); *The Life and Growth of Language, An Outline of Linguistic Science* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1875).

⁵¹ Thomas R. Lounsbury, *History of the English Language* (New York: H. Holt and Company, 1879); *Standard of Pronunciation in English* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1904); *Standard of Usage in English* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1908).

⁵² Listed in the footnote on p. 249.

view to prepare professors of English to adopt a scholarly attitude toward not only the historical study of the English language but also the study of contemporary English.

In 1928 the publication of a significant report by the NCTE's Committee on English Language on courses in colleges and universities sharply turned instructors' attention away from the static prescriptive review of a Latinate English grammar and toward the need to give the student valid information about the living language.⁵³ Inspired by that report, Marckwardt's *Introduction to the English Language* came out in 1942 as the first textbook to facilitate the student's critical inspection of traditional grammar in the light of the growing information about English usage. The availability of this book and certain other materials, including Charles C. Fries' *American English Grammar* published in 1940,⁵⁴ led in the next fifteen years to a pronounced increase in the number of institutions offering courses based upon the expanding knowledge of the facts about current English. A more recent textbook, Paul Roberts' *Understanding Grammar* (1954),⁵⁵ not only treats usage realistically but also helps students use the findings of contemporary linguistics to evaluate traditional grammatical analysis. It thus helps the teacher function as sensibly as possible within the framework of traditional school grammar.

But since World War II, another swift development has drastically altered what should be said about the preparation of the future teacher of the English language. Ignoring the wealth of knowledge in the great works of Jespersen, Poutsma, Sweet, Curme, and others, teachers had for a long time replied to critics of traditional grammar that, after all, it was the only description of English they had. Now, however, unexpectedly rapid progress in linguistic research in general and in English in particular has

⁵³ "Training in English Language for English Teachers: A First Report of the National Council's Committee on English Language Courses in Colleges and Universities," *English Journal*, XVII (December, 1928), 1-11. The committee included Samuel Moore (chairman), Leo L. Rockwell, W. F. Bryan, C. C. Fries, J. S. Kenyon, T. A. Knott, R. L. Ramsey, and J. F. Royster.

⁵⁴ (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940.) English Monograph No. 10, NCTE.

⁵⁵ (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers.)

resulted in new textbooks which present an objective and systematic description of the structure of the language—of its sound patterns and grammar, including morphemics and syntax.

Patterns of English by Paul Roberts, the first secondary school textbook to make a thorough application of structural linguistics in the teaching of grammar and composition, appeared in 1956.⁵⁶ Until 1958, college instructors preparing teachers to use such a textbook in the secondary school classroom had to use Trager and Smith's *An Outline of English Structure* or Fries' *The Structure of English*.⁵⁷ If, however, they felt unprepared to use these two seminal books, they were forced to rely upon Roberts' book itself or upon a combination of it and Whitehall's *Structural Essentials of English* or Lloyd and Warfel's *American English in Its Cultural Setting*.⁵⁸ In 1958, however, appeared W. Nelson Francis' *The Structure of American English*,⁵⁹ the first textbook planned specifically to give the prospective secondary school teacher adequate information about the structure of his own language in the light of contemporary research. In 1958 also appeared Archibald A. Hill's *Introduction to Linguistic Structures*,⁶⁰ the first such textbook intended for graduate students and the future teacher of college English. Another textbook valuable to the future high school teacher is James Sledd's *A Short Introduction to English Grammar*, published in 1959.⁶¹ With every likelihood, then, that the teaching of English both in the schools and colleges will be materially changed in the near future as new textbooks appear and more and more schools adopt them, the prospective teacher's preparation should include not only a standard course in the history of the English language but also a course in modern English grammars, including both generative and structural approaches.

⁵⁶ (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.)

⁵⁷ George L. Trager and Henry Lee Smith, Jr., *An Outline of English Structure* (Norman, Okla.: Battenburg Press, 1951); Charles Carpenter Fries, *The Structure of English* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1952).

⁵⁸ Harold Whitehall, *Structural Essentials of English* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1956); Donald Lloyd and Harry Warfel, *American English in Its Cultural Setting* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1956).

⁵⁹ (New York: The Ronald Press Company.)

⁶⁰ (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.)

⁶¹ (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company.)

The 1928 NCTE report on courses in the English language stipulated that the future high school teacher be required to take at least a two-semester sequence of courses in the English language. Because of the growing insistence that the language preparation of English teachers should not lag too far behind advances in linguistic knowledge, at least this minimum requirement should be widely adhered to. But even when a two-term sequence is available, rarely are both courses required. The 1960 survey shows that of those institutions offering both a course in the history of the English language and one in structural or in advanced grammar, only a minority require the future secondary school teacher to take both.⁶² A large number of colleges require a course in structure or in advanced grammar but treat the historical course as only an elective.⁶³ Only a few institutions have the reverse requirements, stipulating the course in the history of the language but making the grammar course optional.⁶⁴ Others offer both courses but only as electives, although, it should be added, sometimes with urgent recommendations that both be taken.⁶⁵ Certainly the minimal goal defined in 1928 is still

⁶² This minority includes Atlantic Christian University (North Carolina), Capital University, Illinois State Normal University, State College of Iowa, Kent State University, Knoxville College, Linfield College, Northern Michigan College, Western Michigan University, Mississippi State University, Southwestern Missouri State College, Morgan State College, Minnesota State College at St. Cloud, North Texas State University, and the University of Tulsa. At least two institutions, Wayne State University and Gannon College, require not only these two courses but also a third one in English usage.

⁶³ Such institutions are Arizona State University, Brigham Young University, Colorado State University, Central Connecticut State College, University of Detroit, Florida Southern College, Franklin and Marshall College, Indiana University, University of Kansas, Central Michigan University, University of Minnesota, University of North Carolina, Rutgers University, Sam Houston State Teachers College, Eastern Washington State College, Wisconsin State Colleges at Superior and Whitewater.

⁶⁴ Among these are the University of Chattanooga, Southern Oregon College, and Texas Woman's University. The course at Texas Woman's University is not merely a history of the language; it includes grammar in a developmental and historical pattern. The student there studies English grammar and structure in her methods course as well.

⁶⁵ Among those not requiring their available courses are Baylor University, Brooklyn College, Hardin-Simmons University, Hunter College, University of Kentucky, Lambuth College, Lawrence College, Maryland State Teachers College at Towson, and South Dakota State College.

unrealized in most institutions preparing future teachers of secondary school English.

Recommendations. The awareness of the nature of language includes a recognition of its complexity, its vitality, and a duty to use it responsibly. The grossly oversimplified, normative school-grammar gives the impression that good English is really a very simple matter and that students who do not learn it are therefore either stupid or perverse. Even a brief introduction to descriptive linguistics is usually enough to show prospective teachers how fallacious some of these notions are and to send them out as teachers who are at least aware of the difficulty of altering the complex set of habits which constitute language.

A delusion of some teachers is that they are the bulwark preventing the language from being disintegrated by the hordes of the ignorant and slovenly. A study of linguistics, especially of its historical aspects, should make clear what extraordinary vitality language has, how complex and arbitrary is its structure—ever changing, though so imperceptibly as to give the impression of being static—and how successfully it withstands abuse and adapts itself to new situations. On the other hand, language is one of the tools used by human beings to achieve their ends; if those ends are nefarious, the skillful manipulator of language uses it as a deadly tool. The English teacher with linguistics in his background is perhaps as well equipped as any to make his students aware of this abuse—strictly defined, not as abuse of language but as abuse of social responsibility.

Adequate training in language for the prospective teacher of English should cover such topics as the following:

- the nature of language as an arbitrary signaling system, its dynamic quality
- the relation of language and culture, the diversity of the languages of the world
- the relation of language to writing, the invention of writing systems, the spread of the alphabet
- phonetics and phonemics, the sound structure of modern English

morphology, the morphological structure of modern English

syntax, the syntactic structure of modern English

transformation grammar, the process by which complex structures are produced

the nature of appropriateness in speech, speech communities, the child and his language, corrective pressures of the group on the individual

the nature of appropriateness in writing, the control exercised by the publishing company, the development of dictionaries, the effect of handbooks on usage and style

the historical development of English in England and America.

The order of presentation of this material and the extent to which each topic should be explored are pedagogical problems of great difficulty. The division of language and linguistics into these categories is arbitrary and artificial but necessary if the material is to be at all tractable. Whatever order of presentation is followed, the categories neither can nor should be kept entirely apart. And the diachronic and synchronic orientations will always be overlapping. Ideally this material would take nine semester credits—three courses of three credits each in a five- or six-year course. So much instruction will not make the student a linguist, but it should give him control of that part of linguistics which is relevant to his work as a teacher of English. Whenever possible such study should be included in the major for those who plan to teach.

Logic would suggest that the order of presentation be, first, general linguistic theory; second, historical development; third, description of modern English. However, such an arrangement has practical difficulties. Because the Introduction to Linguistic Science course typically offered in American universities is generally aimed at the student intending to specialize in linguistics, it proves a difficult place for the English major to begin. Its relevance to his field will not always be apparent to him if he comes to it without preparation. For this reason a somewhat different order is recommended as follows:

1. A "practical" and elementary course planned for the undergraduate major or minor in English: This course should have as its central content a description of English grammar—the word *grammar* being here understood to mean not only syntax but also phonology and morphology. English grammar is of course much too complicated to be covered thoroughly in a three-credit course, and thorough coverage would not be intended. Rather the aim would be to describe the main features of the English signaling system, the high-frequency patterns. In general, what sort of system is English, and how does it work?

In this course many of the topics listed above could be treated in an elementary way: the general nature of language, the place of language in society, the relation of linguistics to the teaching of English, the relation of writing to speech, and the forces controlling correctness. The course would be descriptive and analytical, not aimed directly at the improvement of the student's use of language.

2. A theoretical and more advanced course in language analysis: This might be the traditional Introduction to Linguistic Science. In this, the English major would come to an understanding of the theoretical justification of what was taught him in the elementary course, and much of the material of the first course would be elaborated and consolidated. He would also get a better knowledge of the general nature of language and some awareness of language features not found in English. For many future teachers of English this program will be one or two semesters of linguistics to counteract a dozen years of prescriptionism, to be followed often by many more years of pressure to conform to prescriptionism. The relevance of linguistics to nearly every aspect of the teaching of English should be given great emphasis at the end of the course.

3. A historical course covering American as well as British English: This would differ from the typical History of the English Language in dealing somewhat more rapidly with the Old English and Middle English periods in order to provide for more extensive treatment of the spread of English in America. Some attention should be given to American dialects with the aid of materials provided by the Linguistic Atlas of the United States.

In this course further attention could be given to the development of the dictionary and to other forces controlling the writing standard.

A QUESTION OF PRIORITY

Colleges whose programs for the English major and minor may, at least temporarily, not provide time for more than a quarter or a semester course in the study of the English language face the question of priorities when a choice among courses must be made. A consideration of the actual demands made upon teachers of secondary school English should give precedence to the study of the structure of present day English and of the correlations between its variants and nonlinguistic features, i.e., usage. The historical background can, if necessary, be provided in outline through collateral reading. But work in the structure of the language calls for class study and discussion with the aid of the instructor.

The findings in the survey conducted by the NCTE Committee on the National Interest reveal that a great majority of colleges and universities preparing teachers of English fail to give them anything like adequate training in the language they speak and write and soon will be teaching. The slowness with which curricular changes occur in some institutions may necessitate following the example of New York by including in state certification regulations a requirement that future teachers of English must receive training in the nature and structure of Modern English.

PREPARATION IN WRITING

THE PRESENT SITUATION

The National Interest and the Teaching of English describes one of the desirable qualities of a teacher of English in this way: "An informed command of the arts of language—rhetoric and logic; ability to speak and write language which is not only

unified, coherent, and correct but also responsible, appropriate to the situation, and stylistically effective." ⁶⁶

Unfortunately, says the same publication, too few prospective teachers of English now attain this "informed command," which they urgently need if they are to teach writing as steadily and well as the public interest demands. Large numbers of future teachers of English take no college course in writing after the freshman year:

The fact that about three out of five English majors and three out of four English minors are not required to complete advanced work in composition is especially disturbing in view of the vital necessity for improving present programs for teaching composition. James B. Conant calls for fifty per cent of high school English courses to be devoted to the teaching of composition. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals emphasizes that "during each school semester, provision must be made to teach writing systematically, sequentially, and continuously." The Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board flatly states, "Composition should be neither infrequent nor incidental. It should be part of each week's work and should be intimately connected with the other parts of that work." For many years similar recommendations have been published by the Commission on the Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English, a group which has long worked for greater emphasis on the teaching of composition. Yet how are teachers to help students understand basic principles of logic and rhetoric to which they themselves have scarcely been introduced? ⁶⁷

Why are many secondary English teachers inadequately prepared to teach writing? The authors of *Education for College*, themselves college English teachers, say that they and their colleagues are responsible:

The teachers themselves are not to blame. Rather, the fault lies with college and university departments of English, which continue to assume that, if they prepare a student to teach literature, a kind of osmosis will endow him with the knowledge and ability to teach language and writing. The English teacher needs a thorough knowl-

⁶⁶ *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, p. 41.

⁶⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 70.

edge of good literature, of course, and this knowledge is not unrelated to the teaching of writing: one must know what good writing is in order to form standards for judging writing that is less than good. But a knowledge of literature is not enough to equip the English teacher to assume all his legitimate classroom responsibilities. The consultants [i.e., the total group responsible for the study on which this book is based] urge the equal importance of work in language, rhetorical theory, and advanced expository writing.⁶⁸

KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS

In his college years the prospective teacher of English should attain a considerable understanding of how language works in connected discourse, a high degree of skill in writing of various types, and an ability to analyze the writings of others to discover its strengths and weaknesses and to make suggestions for its improvement.

A. *Understanding of How Language Works in Connected Discourse*

1. CONTENT. The chief purpose of written discourse is to convey information, opinion, or emotion to a known or unknown reader. The words, sentences, and paragraphs constitute the vehicle; the message, or content, is the cargo, the reason for the existence of the vehicle. Content must be pertinent, accurate, and true in relation to the writer's purpose. Pertinence implies the exclusion of irrelevance. Accuracy denotes avoiding the distortion of verifiable fact. Truth, as used here, need not mean literal truth, which is encompassed in accuracy. A metaphor or a poem does not need to be, and usually is not, actually true. Rather, this higher kind of truth refers to the honest expression of the writer's purpose; a fantasy may be as true in this sense as an article on anhydrous ammonia. But the fantasy becomes untrue if it is inconsistent within itself or if it distorts the writer's purpose and beliefs.

The importance of emphasis upon content in secondary school

⁶⁸ Albert R. Kitzhaber, Robert M. Gorrell, and Paul Roberts, *Education for College* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1961), pp. 90-91.

writing is revealed by the fact that many students enter college with the ability to write controlled sentences with almost no flaws in usage, spelling, punctuation, and other mechanics, but with virtually no ideas or information beyond the most superficial and generally known. Their vehicles run smoothly but carry no worthy cargo. Of first importance, then, in educating future teachers of writing is showing them that good writing says something.

2. LOGIC. Even though his facts are accurate, a writer may intentionally or unintentionally draw faulty inferences. ("How to Lie with Statistics" has become a famous title.) The student writer probably deceives less often by intention than he does because his thinking is crooked; he deceives himself first and his unalert reader second.

The 1961 statement of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, to the effect that the central purpose of all American education should be to teach students to think straight, is of particular significance to the teacher of writing. We think mainly in words, and words are the English teacher's specialty. The well-prepared teacher knows words and the thousand natural ills that words are heir to. He recognizes semantic pitfalls and can see how a newspaper headline or a writer's choice of a word reveals a judgment rather than a fact. He is aware of the valid techniques of argumentation, such as inductive and deductive reasoning and the bolstering of argument through examples; he can test a syllogism and quickly sniff out a hidden premise; he can spot a hasty generalization. And he is aware of such persuasive frauds as the bandwagon approach, flattery, name-calling, and the glittering generality.

3. ORGANIZATION. The three time-honored virtues of writing are unity, coherence, and emphasis. Unity refers especially to content—sticking to the subject; as we have said, each part of the content should be pertinent. Coherence and emphasis are primarily matters of organization. They put the horse before the cart and show clearly which is which.

The prospective teacher should be especially familiar with the major patterns of organization used in expository writing, such as chronological, spatial, inductive, deductive, climactic, greatest-

to-least (as in a news story), and comparative; he should understand the methods by which each of these patterns may be clearly and convincingly developed. He should know effective techniques for ordering an argument. In addition, he should understand plotting in narrative writing, since plots involve much more than a chronological string of beads. And he should know that poems have their own peculiarities of organization. As John Ciardi has frequently pointed out, a succession of quick images in some poems may be comparable to chapters in a book, with the reader of the poem given the responsibility for filling in details that a prose writer would probably include.

A weakness observable in the writing of many a high school upperclassman is that each of his compositions follows the same pattern. He has been successful, for instance, in writing jocular narrative, and as a consequence he treats as a jocular narrative every topic from raising pigs to the explosion of a cobalt bomb. To help such a student, a teacher must be able to show him the virtues of other patterns of organization and help him to choose the most appropriate.

4. SENTENCE STRUCTURE. Many teachers proceed on the semantically false assumption that the word is the thing, that the map is the country, that being able to recognize and name a grammatical construction is the same as being able to use it intelligently. As a result, many students can draw elaborate diagrams of someone else's sentences but cannot construct coherent sentences of their own.

The prospective teacher must know much more about syntax than its terminology. He needs to know, for instance, why a complex sentence is often better than a compound; why clauses should often be reduced to phrases or words; how and for what purposes sentence length may be varied; how variation in sentence beginnings and in sentence patterns may add sparkle and interest; which constructions, such as the introductory participial phrase and the nominative absolute, are more frequent in formal discourse than in informal; and how sentence structure contributes to total stylistic effect. In other words the prospective teacher needs to know what the resources of the English sentence are and when and how each of the resources may best be used. Of particular importance is a clear awareness of how word order,

phrase order, and clause order function in sentences. Donald R. Tuttle summarizes the point in this way:

In modern English the order of words and the ways in which they group themselves within the sentence are increasingly important in conveying the actual meaning of the sentence. Certain arrangements are liable to produce ambiguity. . . . To know the pattern of the English sentence, both traditional and structural grammarians agree, is necessary for correctness in writing. . . . But the understanding of the various patterns of the English sentence is helpful not only in attaining correctness. This kind of knowledge allies itself to rhetoric in the attainment of style. It helps the writer attain variety, subtlety, emphasis, and force in his writing. Without this knowledge, the student is unable to think consciously about how he is manipulating his sentences.⁶⁹

5. **STYLE, DICTION, AND USAGE.** Although sentence structure is a major ingredient of style, word choice is of no less significance. When we refer, for instance, to someone's terse or verbose or euphuistic style, we are really commenting mainly on the characteristics of his sentences, but when we mention his Latinized, sesquipedalian, or flowery style, we are thinking especially of his choice of words. The able teacher of writing recognizes the various components of style and therefore can help his students, especially the better ones, to reduce such stylistic weaknesses as excessive formality or inappropriate informality, prolixity, flowery writing, and pretentious use of big words. He knows, and understands the reasons for, the five precepts of the Fowler brothers: "Prefer the familiar word to the far-fetched. Prefer the concrete word to the abstract. Prefer the single word to the circumlocution. Prefer the short word to the long. Prefer the Saxon word to the Romance."⁷⁰ To those precepts he may add three more: Usually prefer the specific to the general. Always try to find the word that says precisely what you mean. Prefer the word that is most appropriate to the context.

Usage, though it is generally associated with grammar, is especially concerned with the choice of words suited to a given

⁶⁹ Donald R. Tuttle, "Composition," *The Case for Basic Education*, edited by James D. Koerner (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1959), p. 99.

⁷⁰ H. W. and F. G. Fowler, *The King's English*, Third Edition (Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1938).

social context, and hence may be considered a branch of diction.⁷¹ Thus "to tackle a new job" seems less suited to formal discourse than "to undertake a new task," but the latter may appear too highflown when the circumstances are very informal.

6. SPELLING AND OTHER CONVENTIONS. Even though orthodox spelling, punctuation, and capitalization are less vital to good writing than are the first five items discussed in this section, the general public puts more stress on them because flaws in mechanics are easier to recognize. Teachers must therefore place considerable emphasis upon correct spelling and conventional punctuation and capitalization. Prerequisite to this, one preparing to teach must know how to spell and must know how to punctuate and capitalize in accordance with good modern taste.

For perspective on spelling, the future teacher should learn something about the changes that English orthography has undergone in the past thousand years, and about how "correct" spellings came to be so designated. He should also learn about recognized variant spellings,⁷² the chief spelling demons and their usual trouble spots,⁷³ and the extent to which spelling rules or other generalized principles are applicable.

For similar perspective on punctuation and capitalization, the future teacher should know of the developments during the past few centuries: among other things, the erratic patterns of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the heavy punctuation characteristic of the nineteenth century, and the modern tendency toward omitting all unnecessary marks and toward "down style" in capitalization. Useful too is a comparison of textbook rules with the actual practice of reputable magazine and book publishers, and a comparison of current American and British customs.⁷⁴

⁷¹ See Robert C. Pooley, *Teaching English Usage* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1946), esp. Ch. III.

⁷² See Donald W. Emery, *Variant Spellings in Modern American Dictionaries* (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1958).

⁷³ See, e.g., T. C. Pollock, "Spelling Report," *College English*, 16 (November, 1954), 102-109. (Reprint available from NCTE)

⁷⁴ For British punctuation a useful reference is Eric Partridge's *You Have a Point There* (London: Hamish Hamilton Limited, 1953), which concludes with a chapter by John W. Clark of the University of Minnesota on American practices which differ from the British.

B. Skill in Writing of Various Types

A prospective teacher of writing should belie the cliché "Those who can, do; those who can't, teach."

In the classroom that will someday be his, he will have frequent occasion to use his writing ability, not only in the exercises that he prepares but also in the almost daily discussions of "How can we say this better?" Some teachers, in fact, often write paragraphs or themes on the same topics that their students are treating and subject their writing to the same kind of class criticism to which students' papers are exposed.

Outside the classroom, too, the English teacher encounters demands on his writing skill. He finds himself elected secretary of the P.T.A. or a local service organization, or discovers that the principal has drafted him to prepare a readable report on the school's recent accomplishments or its hopes for the future. As he matures in the profession, he is invited to prepare papers or articles on his specialty for various educational organizations. Some English teachers, possessed more than others by *cacoëthes scribendi*, write poems, articles, short stories, novels, and of course textbooks for possible publication. Even when publication is unlikely or unwanted, even in his personal correspondence, the teacher should sometimes write for the joy of writing, just as a music teacher should sometimes play for the pleasure of playing.

Because much secondary school teaching of writing deals with exposition, the prospective teacher should become especially skilled in this type. But since he also has the responsibility for instruction in narration, description, and argumentation, and since the four varieties of composition are often interwoven, his preparation should not omit these types. He may sometime serve as adviser for a school newspaper, and he will perhaps want to teach intelligent reading of newspapers; some practice in journalistic writing will prove valuable there. Ideally, he should try his hand, too, though not necessarily in a formal course, at writing poems, short stories, and plays.

Much practice in writing, both before he becomes a teacher and after, provides an awareness of the problems students face

as they stare blankly or glare at the spotless paper before them. The teacher who knows how to write is likely to be both imaginative and judicious in his assignments, as well as realistic in his expectations.

Knowing how to write also implies some knowledge of the creative process. Just as there is more than one way to get from New York to Los Angeles, so there are many ways to write a composition. From his own experience, as well as from study of the writing habits of professionals,⁷⁵ the prospective teacher learns what some of these ways are and thus rids himself of the misconception that every composition must involve a methodical, mechanical following of a few specified steps. He learns, too, that nothing new is ever created; originality consists of an unfamiliar arrangement of old materials.⁷⁶

C. *Ability to Analyze the Writing of Others*

The prospective teacher who understands well the uses of language in connected discourse and who himself can write well possesses the basic tools for analyzing the writing of his future students. In addition, however, he needs to learn something about average levels of expectation in student writing, about techniques for evaluation, and about ways for suggesting improvement in the writing of a student or a class.

Though some seventh graders write better than some twelfth graders, the *average* level of writing in the twelfth grade is considerably higher than that in the seventh. Slowly, from year to year, the average level of writing improves, as is revealed in greater maturity of content, better organization and sentence structure, more precise diction, and fewer flaws in usage and mechanics. The prospective teacher needs to learn about the average quality of writing that he may legitimately expect from his future students at various grade levels. Knowing this, he will

⁷⁵ Sixteen informative interviews with modern writers are available in *Writers at Work*, edited by Malcolm Cowley (New York: The Viking Press, 1958).

⁷⁶ An excellent collection of short articles on creativity is *The Creative Process*, edited by Brewster Ghiselin (New York: New American Library, 1955), first published by the University of California Press.

be able to recognize the many deviations from the average and react appropriately to them.⁷⁷

Of particular importance in evaluation are the suggestions for improvement that a teacher presents to individuals or to classes. If, for example, a student's work is weak in both content and mechanics, which should the student be asked to try to improve first? If content is good but sentence structure poor, what specific suggestions will help a particular student? If most members of a class share the same few weaknesses, how can instruction be adapted to meet these obvious needs? Even though no definitive answers to such questions can be given, the prospective teacher should have an array of possibilities from which to choose.

COURSES

What courses should the prospective teacher of writing take in college to attain the large number of understandings and skills that have been described? Certainly more than just the year of freshman composition is needed, yet the total does not have to be impossibly large.

The needs are in three areas: knowledge of language, skill in writing, and ability to help students with their writing. The first was discussed in the preceding section of this chapter.

To develop writing skill, it would be easy to recommend as many advanced composition courses as can be squeezed into the prospective teacher's program. However, because this might lead to the elimination of other courses no less valuable, a practical compromise is one advanced composition course which emphasizes expository writing but encourages the students to incorporate other types as appropriate. In addition, college courses in literature should, and usually do, require considerable writing, which can be evaluated both on what it says and on how well it says it. Some of the papers required for courses in literature may profitably deal with analyses of authors' tech-

⁷⁷ Available from the NCTE are a number of publications on the evaluation of student writing. Most of these have been prepared by NCTE affiliates. Some, such as those from Illinois and from Western Pennsylvania, are devoted to specific grades and hence help teachers in learning about average levels of expectation in those grades.

niques and not solely with, for example, interrelationships of chapters or biographical and sociological and psychological questions.

Study of the characteristics of the writing done by secondary students, along with techniques for improving such writing, probably belongs in the methods course. A few colleges and universities, however, offer special instruction. The University of Texas is currently developing an English course in expository writing, at the junior level, that will include analysis of weaknesses in student writing and work out instructional techniques for attacking each variety of weakness.

In summary, the following table suggests minimum and desirable course requirements for the prospective English teacher as a teacher of writing. One whose writing is not highly satisfactory and whose grasp of linguistic principles is shaky should certainly be urged to take more courses than the minimal number. Some courses in the desirable group may well be postponed for inservice education; for example, the University of Illinois has for teachers a graduate course in English that requires much writing and intensive study of rhetorical theory and practice.

<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Ideal</i>
Freshman composition (one year)	Freshman composition (one year)
The English language (one course)	The English language (three courses)
Expository writing (in addition to freshman composition, one course for sophomores or juniors)	Expository writing (in addition to freshman composition, one course for sophomores or juniors)
Evaluation and improvement of student writing (part of one course)	Other advanced writing (two or more courses)
Consistent evaluation of written work in other undergraduate and graduate English courses	Journalistic writing (one course)
	Rhetorical theory and practice (one course)
	Logic (one course)
	Semantics (one course)
	Evaluation and improvement of student writing (one course)

PREPARATION IN LITERATURE ⁷⁸

PURPOSES

Fortunately, no fundamental contradiction need exist between "professional" and "liberal" aims in the study of literature. The habit of turning to literature for pleasure, insight, enrichment—important to any liberally educated person—is essential, of course, to the teacher of English. Without such zest for literature, he will be incapable of initiating others into its joys, from which flow its other benefits. To foster in his pupils this sense of the personal values of literary experience is precisely the main task of the secondary school teacher of literature.⁷⁹ The appeal of literature to the adolescent is predominantly as an ordered evocation of life.

The prospective teacher must prepare himself, then, to help pupils encounter those literary works that will provide the emotional and intellectual nourishment needed at each stage in their development. Such books will give them pleasure, will help them to understand themselves and others better, will answer their questions about adult roles and the adult world, or will illuminate the values of American and Western heritage and of other cultures. Above all, in the context of this linkage with the pupils' own interests and personalities, the secondary school teacher can help his pupils evoke a literary work more fully from the printed page. Having participated emotionally and intellectually in literary experience, the youth may be guided toward more and more competent, mature, and critically discriminating reading.

⁷⁸ This section draws on (a) *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*; (b) study of literature requirements listed in the catalogs of 46 institutions of higher education, diversified geographically and as to type (i.e., liberal arts, teachers college, university); (c) personal letters from faculty members in various "representative" institutions; (d) several unpublished surveys, and especially, *The Major in English*, by the Committee on Undergraduate Programs, Arkansas Experiment in Teacher Education, June, 1956; (e) the professional literature, especially *College English*. The aim is not to report on the *status quo*, but rather to touch on recurrent questions and, at points, to indicate what seem to be desirable trends.

⁷⁹ *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*, p. 154.

Some current findings reveal the failure of the great majority of high school (and college) graduates to develop the life-time habit of turning to literature for such personal satisfaction.⁸⁰ The question presents itself: Has there been sufficient concern, in the planning and method of the English major program, for preparing the future teacher for these difficult responsibilities? So far as the phrasing of courses is concerned, the undergraduate literature program reflects mainly the patterns of the graduate school program: historical sequence, literary types, or the development of a single author. The teacher must, of course, have command of these approaches, yet these are the ones least often directly taught to the great body of younger and less verbally gifted pupils in the secondary school. With these students, at least, literature should not be studied primarily as a document for illustrating information about literary history and biography of authors, or for definition of literary techniques and genres. The high school teacher must be prepared to meet the adolescent's legitimate concern with literature as a source of pleasure and as a means of self-discovery and exploration of the life of man in society.

No matter what the course label, in many college classrooms throughout the country the literary work does remain the center of attention as a personal, enjoyable, meaningful experience. Yet, the teaching profession has been suspicious of this emphasis, fearing the breakdown of discipline and scholarship into mere sentimentality and moralizing. The recent wholesome trend toward concentration on the literary text itself has, perhaps ironically, reinforced this resistance because of concentration often on a certain type of formalistic analysis of the text, as an end in itself. A sound reading of the text should lead to concern for the relationship between the work and the continuing life of the reader. The fear is that, with this approach,

⁸⁰ Jacob M. Price, ed., *Reading for Life: Developing the College Student's Lifetime Reading Interest* (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1959), pp. 3-26.

For more encouraging reports on the reading done by high school and college students see James R. Squire, "Literacy and Literature," *English Journal*, XLIX (March, 1960), 154-160; Joseph Mersand, *Attitudes Toward English Teaching*, pp. 150-290.

not literature, but history, sociology, or ethics will be taught. When this happens in the secondary school classroom, the reason seems to be the teacher's lack of training in bringing such considerations—moral, psychological, sociological, aesthetic, historical—to bear on evoking a fuller and sounder experience of the literary work itself.⁸¹ Not a lowering of standards, but a raising of standards might very well result from greater concern with developing in the future teacher the ability to apply all such approaches in this humanistic way. This does not necessarily imply that courses should be organized differently, although it might increase the number of courses directly organized around great themes or directly concerned with issues in values or with the relation, say, between literature and philosophy. It does imply the need to scrutinize our undergraduate offerings to majors, many of whom will be teachers, in order to make sure that scholarship or critical theory is presented in a context relevant to their future use of it as people and teachers.

The future teacher needs most of all to develop the ability to read and interpret for himself. Without this power he may derive little, if any, personal nourishment from that lifetime habit of reading which is one aim of English studies. Nor will he be able to fulfill his role as a teacher without it. Recollection of literary interpretations noted in his college courses will not suffice for his teaching secondary school classes. Often the works studied in college must be seen anew, within the framework of the secondary school curriculum and the varied abilities and interests of secondary school students. Moreover, he will be called upon to teach many works, both of the past and present, not encountered in college courses. Hence, his college training must prepare him to read, analyze, evaluate, and teach new works and unfamiliar literary forms.

The development of a student's ability to confront a new work or unfamiliar form has important implications for the conduct of college courses in literature. It implies a higher standard for the student and prospective teacher than the ability to pass examinations on only those literary works interpreted, classified,

⁸¹ For a detailed discussion of ways of analyzing a literary selection see pp. 541 ff. (Chapter 11)

and evaluated by the professor. Instead of passively listening to the instructor's analysis and parroting introductions and standard critical writings, the future teacher needs to develop the desire, skills, and self-confidence essential for independent reading. Thus the college instructor's concern is not only with inculcating a sound interpretation of the literary work being taught, but also with his students' becoming sensitive to the technical means by which it evokes idea, attitude, and emotional response. Every course in literature should foster growth in the ability to read independently and to respond more adequately to the interrelationship of aesthetic elements within the literary work.

Yet some readers have overemphasized literary analysis and have seen the problem too narrowly. Failure and frustration await the fledgling secondary school teacher who comes to his work fresh from college with the notion that analysis of literary technique is an end in itself and the reason for the study of literature. He needs to be able not only to analyze and interpret literary works but also to evaluate their relevance to the fundamental concerns of his pupils. To develop competencies in reading literature requires interest in the works read. This balance between emphasis on skills in reading and on broader concerns with literature is maintained in the statement of the aims for the study of literature in the *Advanced Placement Program Syllabus* for 1958, which stresses close reading, but warns that "the ability to formulate an idea and identify an artistic device is of little value unless the student can demonstrate the relationships between form and content."⁸² An earlier edition (1956) emphasizes the *full* reading of the literary work as being the "appreciation of the literary whole as an aesthetic unit and an evaluation of experience."

This emphasis is not an argument for "intensive" as against "extensive" reading. No simple formula for "how to read a novel," for example, can be learned through intensive analysis of a few novels. The future teacher, to develop his power to deal with the protean novel, needs the flexibility and sensitivity

⁸² Commission on Advanced Placement, *Advanced Placement Program Syllabus* (New York: CEEB, 1958), p. 97.

derived from acquaintance with a variety of works. Only a carefully planned program can serve these dual ends of intensity and breadth.

The future teacher needs to be prepared for a lifelong process of self-education in literature. Specific courses ultimately will have value as they lay the foundation, and as they provide also experience in the use of the library, knowledge of bibliographical aids, and acquaintance with critical journals. The college teacher can further help his students become lifelong readers of books by stimulating them to read beyond and outside the limits of courses. One way of contributing to this kind of reading is to let them see that he, too, is a reader of "unassigned" books, outside the purview of his courses or field of specialization.

PRESENT REQUIREMENTS

Because of the complexity of the secondary school teacher's responsibilities and opportunities, for which he must be prepared through preservice and inservice programs, at least a five-year college program is needed to provide him with an adequate preparation in literature as well as in the English language, advanced composition, speech, dramatics, and journalism. But as has already been reported, 47 states and most of the colleges and universities require beginning high school teachers to complete only four years of college. The report of the Committee on the National Interest presents detailed information on the literature requirements 454 colleges and universities have established for students preparing to teach secondary school English.⁸³

The committee found that for a teaching major in English 53.3 per cent of the institutions require 18 to 24 semester credits (excluding freshman English); 28.8 per cent require 25 to 30 credits; 12.8 per cent, 31 or more credits; and 5.1 per cent, fewer than 18. Concerning these requirements the committee comments:

The data reveal that requirements in literature for students planning to teach high school with a major in English are far more spe-

⁸³ *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, pp. 75-87.

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cific than the requirements in language. Even so, certain deficiencies are apparent. About 85 per cent of the colleges require survey courses in English literature or American literature . . . ; 72.9 per cent require course work in Shakespeare. These requirements are maintained in more than two-thirds of the colleges. Most specialists would agree that some work in these areas is vital and should be required of all. Beyond these three requirements, little agreement is apparent, as is indicated by the following rank order of the frequency in which courses in literature are required.

RANK ORDER OF FREQUENCY OF REQUIRED COURSES IN LITERATURE

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Course</i>	<i>% of colleges responding</i>
1	English Literature (survey)	86.8%
2	American Literature (survey)	83.7
3	Shakespeare	72.9
4	World Literature (survey)	37.0
5	Chaucer or Middle English Literature	32.2
6	Nineteenth Century	28.0
7.5	Seventeenth Century	21.1
7.5	Contemporary Literature	21.1
9	Eighteenth Century	20.5
10	Masterpieces of Literature	10.1

Only a limited number of schools require study of world literature and contemporary literature, perhaps the most apparent weaknesses in existing programs of preparation. Only slightly more than one-third of the colleges require world literature and only one-fifth contemporary literature. Both are areas in which secondary schools provide many offerings. Obviously college programs cannot provide course work in every aspect of literature conceivably needed at some time by the teacher. More important than any accumulation of course credits is the approach to literature that the student learns. Still a teacher cannot teach content with which he remains unfamiliar, nor can he have an adequate basis for selecting literature to be taught in the schools unless he has some understanding of selections available. One can only hope that those English majors who are not required to complete such courses are strongly advised to take them. . . .

The increasing emphasis on world literature in the nation's schools

makes highly desirable some introduction to this content. The difficulty of much contemporary literature poses special problems for the teacher, as does his problem of selecting works to be taught from literature which has not yet stood the test of time. Preparation in contemporary literature seems almost a necessity. While regrettable, the few requirements for period courses are of less concern, since students will necessarily be introduced to many of the important writings of each age during the survey courses.

During the past twenty years, approaches in literary criticism and in methods of teaching literature have shifted perceptibly. In teaching, much less emphasis is placed on the historical approach, much more on critical analysis. To find that only 29.1 per cent of students planning to teach in high school with a major in English are required to complete a course in literary criticism or in critical analysis of literature is disconcerting, especially since it seems unlikely that students educated only in broad historical survey courses can be well prepared for the newer approaches.

* * * * *

The standard of preparation for teachers of English presented earlier in this report calls for teachers to be informed about the literature that they teach. Especially between grades 7 and 10, high school teachers teach many books especially written for children and adolescents, both classics such as *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, *Bambi*, and *Treasure Island* and good recent books like *Caddie Woodlawn*, *Johnny Tremain*, and *On to Oregon*. Conventional courses in literature pay little attention to such selections, yet only 15.9 per cent of schools require students preparing to teach English in high school to complete a course in literature for children and adolescents.

The committee's comments are supported by teachers' recommendations for improving the preparation of teachers of secondary school English. As reported in the preceding chapter, teachers recommend that at least the following courses should be required: courses in surveys or masterpieces of English, American, and world literature; Shakespeare; English drama; appreciation of poetry; contemporary literature; methods of literary criticism; and literature for adolescents.⁸⁴ If the three

⁸⁴ Of course, if the freshman English course is chiefly contemporary, for one year the English major will meet the writings of some contemporary authors in magazines and books.

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surveys and the course in Shakespeare are year-long courses and the rest semester courses, such a program would total 39 credits of literature. Then to be added are courses in freshman English, modern English grammar, advanced composition, speech, dramatics, and journalism. Obviously, choices have to be made or the years of college study have to be increased. But the comprehensiveness of the experienced teachers' recommendations of what is needed to prepare a future teacher of English adequately points up the absurdity of some states' requirements permitting teachers who have only 12 or 15 credits of college English, including freshman English, to teach secondary school English.

Various combinations of courses in periods, types, surveys, and single authors comprise majors. No one pattern applies universally. Some of the aims generally reflected in course requirements, although not all necessarily in any one program, are these: experience of a wide range of works, acquaintance with the historical continuity of English and American literature, understanding of several approaches to literature, intensive study of at least one major author, understanding the nature of different genres or intensive study of at least one genre, knowledge of at least one period, study of literary criticism. An introduction to world literature is increasingly required, and there is increasing provision for work in literature for adolescents. *The probable effectiveness of any set of requirements seems to depend on whether it is coherently planned and sufficiently diversified in approach.*

LITERATURE COURSES

Various kinds of literature courses are discussed below from the point of view of their contribution to the training of the secondary school teacher of English:

World literature, which usually must be in translation, can be introduced in a three-credit course. Courses like literary criticism, fiction, and drama often include translations of noteworthy works as well as works written in English. These were not counted in the *National Interest* report. Elementary and secondary schools might reexamine the literary selections offered in their literary programs to include many from the wealth of world literature available.

The Introductory Literature Course. Since the introductory, usually sophomore, course serves the whole student group, which includes many students with little verbal aptitude and a resistance to literature, the traditional historical survey has tended to be replaced by courses treating major works of the past (and sometimes present). These works are chosen for their power to awaken the student to literature as a means of participating in human experience and of becoming aware of its meaning for himself and society. The historical survey is sometimes retained, however, as the introductory sophomore course for the prospective English major. This is unfortunate, since his secondary school training in literature was likely no more adequate than that of his verbally less gifted classmates. Certainly, the future teacher should early in his program have a course in which all the approaches, such as historical, biographical, technical, kindle a sense of literature as personal experience. The experience evoked by the printed page should lead to the reader's reflection on the whole selection as a work of art.

In such a course the emphasis would be not simply on the identification of devices or technical analyses but on the whole critical reading process: learning to handle one's responses, relevant and irrelevant; becoming aware of one's blind spots or tendencies to over-react; developing the appropriate receptive approach to different literary types; learning to return to the text in order to build a more valid interpretation and evaluation; reflecting on the implications of the work for oneself and for society. Such a course early in the major's program would lay a sound foundation for his continuing to develop the ability to read critically. Sound reading is the essential foundation for the critical and scholarly training appropriate to the English teacher.

Survey of English Literature (required by 86.8 per cent of the 454 colleges and universities responding to the NCTE survey). Recently the survey course has been charged with the faults of superficiality, arbitrary labeling of and generalizing about literature. Reading excerpts from a large number of authors has wisely been replaced by reading more intensively a smaller number of "representative" authors or "masterpieces" presented in the con-

text of the history of English literature. In some instances, to escape the alleged defects, the course is extended to three or four semesters; this, on the other hand, imposes the historical framework upon most of the major's work. But since some kind of survey of English literature seems necessary for the prospective teacher, another plan, which seems especially adapted to his needs, is to make the "survey" a senior course or seminar, providing a historical framework for the reading done in other courses and making it possible for the student to "fill in gaps" in a consistent way.

American Literature (required by 83.7 per cent of the colleges). Because of the stress placed on American studies in the schools of this country, a solid foundation in American literature is essential for the future teacher of secondary school English. He will undoubtedly be called upon to teach a great deal of American literature. Moreover, as an interpreter of American society and American values, the teacher himself needs the understanding of American civilization to be derived from its literature.

The survey of American literature is often prescribed. This course does not arouse the usual objections to a survey, to some extent because of the shorter time span and also because the study of the literature of an emerging culture especially lends itself to the chronological, historical approach. An increasing number of departments offer a major in American literature. This trend may suggest the need to guard against too exclusive preoccupation with American literature, without sufficient work in Shakespeare and other English authors who are a continuously active part of the American heritage.

World Literature (required by 37.0 per cent of the colleges). The widespread introduction of courses in world literature or the literature of the Western heritage reflects the demand for all to see American life in the context of Western civilization, to understand and accept very different cultures, to think in world-wide concepts. The same sense of the importance of literature as a means of coming to understand other cultures is reflected in the increasing use of literature in translation in the high schools. Teachers colleges, on the whole, seem to have been the readiest to see these implications for the preparation of the

English teacher and to add to the basic requirements a course in world literature.

The world literature course, like the traditional survey, raises the objections that it tends to cover too much too superficially. Here, again, the solution frequently is the selection of "masterpieces" or "great works" ranging from the Bible and Homer to the Renaissance or even to the present and to focus mainly on Western civilization. Other attempts to avoid sketchiness and superficiality have been the use of works from several literatures in courses on a particular type, or the study of a particular period.

Again, it seems that the guiding principle should not be inclusiveness but rather sufficiently deep participation in the literature of a few carefully selected cultures to increase one's understanding of them. Students must learn to adapt to exotic literary forms and to participate in patterns of life and systems of values different from their own.

Shakespeare (required by 72.9 per cent of the colleges). Although Shakespeare undoubtedly is included in some phase of the required work in all programs—if only as a part of the survey of English literature—most departments devote at least three credits, often six credits, to Shakespearean plays. A strong case can be made for this. Surely, of all authors in English, Shakespeare justifies intensive and concentrated study. Moreover, since Shakespeare stands beside the Bible in a special relationship to American culture, such a course becomes a link in preserving the continuity of the American heritage.

Again, the usual reminder is needed: the high school teacher will probably teach Shakespeare as it has been taught him in college. The fascination of the "scholarly adventurer's" pursuit of knowledge *about* Shakespeare's life and times, the study of the physical stage, of Shakespeare's audience, and indeed, the analysis of technique and structure, relevant though they are, can become a substitute for the poetry and drama of the plays themselves. The high school teacher is the sole interpreter of Shakespeare for that very large portion of the American people who do not go to college. He needs to learn to focus on the themes, nuances of character and motive, resolution of conflict, varied

philosophies, the complexity of emotional impact—the primary aspects of the plays which he must help his high school students to experience. Sarcasm lampoons the high school student who builds a cardboard model of the Elizabethan stage as a substitute for reading Shakespeare. His teacher may have equally avoided the same challenge by a “term paper” at college on Shakespeare’s biography or even on a systematic study of Shakespeare’s imagery, to the neglect of the organic unity of action and character which from Aristotle to the present remains the primary experience.

Other Intensive Courses in Major Writers. In some departments, the student is offered a choice in “elective” credits within the program. Various courses provide an intensive study of a single author or of a small group of authors. Among these, Chaucer is sometimes stressed, often because of the opportunity to become acquainted with Middle English rather than because of the immediacy of the evocations of life in his poems.⁸⁵ Milton is much less frequently urged. Such courses as “Wordsworth and Coleridge,” or “Milton and the Metaphysical Poets,” or groups of American authors, such as Hawthorne, Melville, and Emerson, are offered.

Whatever the particular requirement may be, the prospective teacher should have the experience of reading intensively in the work of one or more major authors besides Shakespeare. Undoubtedly, individual “outside” reading can provide intensive reading in individual authors; often, however, a student encounters only isolated “masterpieces” in leaps from peak to peak. The teacher needs both the experience of close reading and the study of the relationship of the individual author to the broader social and intellectual context within which he wrote.

*Types.*⁸⁶ In addition to offering an introductory course with samples of the various “types,” many colleges offer courses in separate genres. According to the NCTE survey, most colleges do not require a course in types. But those that do are much more likely to require courses in poetry, fiction, and drama than in

⁸⁵ Required by 32.2 per cent of the colleges.

⁸⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 82, 83. Required by 38.8 per cent of the colleges; 28.2 per cent require one in poetry; 23.5 per cent require fiction; 21.8 per cent, drama; 9.5 per cent, nonfiction.

biography and essay. Some programs for prospective teachers require, perhaps wisely, a semester course in each of the three popular types. To instruct his pupils in the techniques of reading the various types, the prospective teacher needs not only to study the general development of a genre, but also to be aware of the aesthetics of the form and the imaginative response it requires of the reader.

Poetry merits a special comment. If poetry reading is not to vanish from the experience of the great majority of American secondary school pupils, their English teachers will have to become better teachers of poetry than, as a group, they have been in the past. The secondary school teacher's task is to introduce young, and often reluctant, readers to the rewards of poetry. Hence, he needs to recognize worthwhile poems to which they, at their level, can respond. He must himself be able to read an unfamiliar poem, and, without external aids, to respond to its complex dynamics and apprehend its inner organization. He will use his analysis of the method and structure of the poem as a strategy for leading his young pupils to read the selection. He will help his students to focus on poetic awareness, to evoke poetic experience, rather than to explicate the poem. By understanding how language functions in poetry, the teacher will guide his pupils into responding to rhythm, image, symbol, structure, tone. And he must do this without making poetry seem to reside exclusively in any one of these, rather than in the organic experience of the whole work.

The college teacher must give his students both wide and deep experience of poetry, as of the other forms of literature. No matter how sophisticated or "difficult" the poetry read in college—and the tendency often is to stress close reading of such poems—the secondary school teacher must have a broad and basic view of the realm of poetic experience. The college instructor who keeps in mind the difficult task for which he is preparing his students may help to revive a reading public for poetry in America.

Surely, no one course will accomplish what must be the result of the whole college experience with poetry. Part of this may be accomplished in the introductory course sketched earlier. Cer-

tainly, the study of any poetry, in any course pattern, should serve to increase the capacity to read independently, but that study may call for a separate course on the reading of poetry. Especially pertinent to poetry is also the discussion below concerning work in literary criticism. Opportunity for the writing of poetry is another aid to critical insight.

Period Courses. Certain departments organize their offerings almost entirely in chronological segments. Some require at least one or two period courses: e.g., Elizabethan period, the eighteenth century, the Romantic period. But the tendency in many programs for teachers is to reduce the number of these in order to make possible the variety of approaches indicated above. On the whole, this seems a valid practice. Nevertheless, certainly the five-year program at least should include a period course, which can provide insight into literary history as a discipline not possible in the broad survey. Naive assumptions concerning the concept of a "period" and concerning the relations between major and minor authors thus can be eliminated.

Contemporary literature is a rather special instance under the period category. It is included in a number of programs on the persuasive grounds that the English teacher especially should be in the habit of reading contemporary books and periodicals.

Senior Seminars. A senior seminar can provide opportunity for some kind of integrating experience. Aims indicated for such a course are these: intensive reading of an author, the writing of a scholarly and critical essay, the acquisition of bibliographical information. Clearly, the function of this seminar will differ from program to program and will provide the opportunity to fill in some neglected emphasis. Its main purpose, in the light of the great demands for independent judgment on the part of the secondary school teacher, should undoubtedly be to develop in the student the maturity and self-confidence for independent work. No seminar can accomplish this without a proper supporting program, of course, which has been building these qualities.

Literary Criticism (required by 29.1 per cent of the colleges). A commendable trend is the increasing attention given to literary criticism, although more than two-thirds of the colleges prepar-

ing secondary school teachers still do not require them to take a course in criticism. If the introductory course lays the foundation in sound habits of reading and if the advanced courses present a coherent range of materials, types, and approaches, the course on critical theory may well be postponed until the senior year or even the fifth year, when the student has a richer literary background. The purpose should be to provide a framework and a theoretical basis for the student's continuing growth in critical maturity. Study of the dynamics of the literary work, the functioning of language in the work of art, the potentialities and limitations of the various critical approaches, the theory of genres, the role of metaphor and symbol, can contribute to the development of systematic criteria of interpretation and evaluation.

The work in criticism should avoid an exclusive emphasis on formal analysis. The various theories of both literary creation and the function of literature are necessary to dispel much current confusion. In order to build sound habits of interpretation in his students, the English teacher must learn to explore the nature of literary experience itself, the factors that enter into the relationship between reader and text, the extent to which ability to interpret depends on self-criticism; he must learn to discount irrelevant responses, false preconceptions, naive technical presuppositions. The contributions of I. A. Richards' *Practical Criticism*⁸⁷ and related works to understanding of the reading process should temper the more formalist emphasis of such influential works as Wellek and Warren's *The Theory of Literature*.⁸⁸

Literature for Adolescents (required by 15.9 per cent of the colleges). The prospective teacher should be given the opportunity to become acquainted with literary works of the past and present appropriate to the secondary school. The course should prepare the teacher to meet whatever the specific needs of his future pupils may be. He should learn the sources of information

⁸⁷ I. A. Richards, *Practical Criticism* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1929). See also Malcolm Cowley, "Criticism: A Many-Windowed House," *Saturday Review*, August 12, 1961, pp. 10-11, 46-47.

⁸⁸ René Wellek and Austin Warren, *The Theory of Literature* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1956).

about the growing body of literature for youth and the criteria for analyzing and selecting books appropriate to the wide range of individual interests and capacities of the adolescent reader. This is sometimes considered a "professional" course not counting toward the subject major.⁸⁹

SUMMARY

The future teacher of English is preparing to undertake responsibility for, as the Harvard Committee phrased it, "the central humanistic study" in the schools.⁹⁰ The program of literature courses he studies in college can play an important role in preparing him, both personally and professionally, for his important task. He should have a broad background of reading in English, American, and world literature; he should be a reader of contemporary literature, and he should have a knowledge of works appropriate for the adolescent reader. Perhaps most important of all, in order to fulfill his role, he should himself continue throughout his life to turn to literature as a constant source of pleasure and insight.

No single pattern of courses or experience with literature has been proved the ideal preparation for teaching literature to adolescents. But a carefully planned program is needed to provide knowledge of a sufficiently wide range of literary works without sacrificing depth, a sense of the historical continuity of literature in English, and a command of the various critical approaches to literature. Fundamental to all courses is development of the student's capacity to evoke from the printed page a full and sound reading of the literary work. Instrumental to this will be an understanding of its inner dynamics and structure, on the one hand, and, on the other, awareness of the critical approaches and knowledge helpful in revealing its human import.

⁸⁹ *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, p. 84: "In 31 (colleges) (6.8 per cent of the 454 institutions), the required course in literature for children or adolescents is offered by the English department. In 38 colleges (8.3 per cent of those responding), it is offered in education. In 12 schools (2.6 per cent), it is a library science course. Some schools reported the course as offered by more than one department.

⁹⁰ *General Education in a Free Society*, p. 107.

From this should emerge a sense of the literary work as at once an ordered aesthetic experience and an illumination of life.

PREPARATION IN SPEECH

Among the many classroom and extracurricular responsibilities of the teacher of secondary school English are those involving students' learning how to speak English effectively, participating in dramatics, debates, and speaking contests, learning the rudiments of journalism, writing school news for local newspapers, and publishing school newspapers and yearbooks. Whereas colleges have specialists in departments of English, speech and drama, and journalism to attend to these matters in the college and community, only too often the school and community assume the teacher of secondary school English to have all of these skills and knowledge in addition to his comprehensive preparation in literature, language, and composition.

NEED FOR TRAINING

The importance of every English teacher's being prepared to teach speech in his English classes may be seen in the contradiction between the acclaim generally given to oral communication in a democratic society and the percentage of high school students who get no special training in speech. In his survey in 1954-1955 of 48 representative high schools in Kansas, Oscar M. Haugh found that only 8.5 per cent of the students were enrolled in any kind of course considered to be speech: speech training, public speaking, debate, dramatics, stagecraft. When the number of pupils participating in extracurricular activities related to speech were added, the total was 29 per cent. But because many students participate in more than one activity and may also be enrolled in a class in speech or dramatics, this figure may be misleading. The percentages did not vary significantly among schools of different sizes.⁹¹ The question immediately arises, of course, as to the kind of training in speech being given, if any, to the 90 per cent of the students not enrolled in speech classes.

⁹¹ Oscar M. Haugh, "The English Teacher as Teacher of Speech," *English Journal*, XLIV (April, 1955), 205-210.

Speech is an indispensable medium for teaching and learning in all school subjects. But how much specific attention is given in classes throughout the schools to students' speech habits and abilities to communicate depends upon teachers' interests, abilities, preparation, and commitments. The common assumption seems to be that all these matters are taken care of in English classes, if indeed they deserve any attention at all. And just as many administrators apparently assume that any teacher can teach English, so do some institutions preparing teachers assume that any English major can also teach speech and dramatics. Until schools in general employ speech teachers, the only improved training given secondary school pupils will lie with English teachers. Their college preparation and inservice education should be strengthened.

Many English teachers are fully aware of this problem. The surveys of experienced teachers' recommendations for improving the preparation of future English teachers report their convictions that new teachers should be prepared in the "fundamentals" of speech and dramatics and should also participate in plays and in debate and speech contests. Consequently, the outline of standards of preparation of teachers of English includes several criteria directly and indirectly related to the teacher's ability in speaking English and in teaching speech.⁹²

Although in the process of his growing up and his schooling the future teacher of English often develops acceptable competence in speaking English, he probably does not acquire the needed specialized knowledge and skills specified in the outline of standards of preparation. Nor is he likely to acquire the necessary range of skills and information from college English courses demanding only information from books and skill in writing. However valuable the contribution of these courses may be, they should be supplemented by courses giving the candidate knowledge of speech as an academic subject worthy of study and supervised practice in the various kinds of speech activities needed by the teacher of English and characteristic of the activities engaged in by students in secondary school English and speech classes.

⁹² See pp. 181-182. (In Chapter 4)

CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Teachers of English are sometimes expected to teach irrelevant topics and sometimes unwisely proliferate their own subject. But they cannot escape their responsibilities for teaching pupils to speak, listen, read, and write. In fact, they are also responsible, as are all teachers, for a "first" skill inherent in all the others—the ability to think.⁹³ Thinking is the indispensable prelude to meaningful communication by means of the other skills. The English teacher is responsible for teaching these requisite attitudes and skills, not because these phrases may make—as suggested by the authors of *Education for College*—an attractive, neat package that must, like a foundling, be dropped on the English teacher's doorstep. The English teacher is responsible for these skills because all of them are inextricably involved in any use of language, be it by Plato, Shakespeare, Churchill, or the student in the class.

Furthermore, these skills are not separable. Speaking is reinforced by thinking, listening, reading, and writing. Training in speaking contributes to an understanding of language and skill in writing. It can help the student learn the importance of a speaker's using junctures, intonation, pitch, and accent to convey meaning and to see the relationship of these linguistic elements to grammar, punctuation, and to the syntax, clarity, and rhythm of the written sentence.

Speech is fundamental to man as a social being, particularly in a democracy. National leaders cannot govern without it. The mass media bring speech into the personal lives of every student and his family. Teachers of many subjects have opportunities

⁹³ Observers who disapprove of the attention schools give to teaching pupils to think apparently are unwilling to accept the recommendations in the Harvard Report, *General Education in a Free Society*, and in the NEA's pamphlet, *The Central Purpose of Education*, which states that the central purpose of American education is to develop students' ability to think. They also reject the findings in the extensive research proving that critical thinking and problem solving can be taught to high school and college students and that for many of them these skills have to be taught directly. For this evidence consult the documents listed in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, (1960), pp. 657-661.

daily to provide students with practice and guidance in developing skill in speaking. But the English teacher must assume particular responsibility for doing so through classroom and group discussions, students' oral reports, panel discussions, panel presentations, dramatizing literary selections, oral interpretation of literature, including choral reading, and many variations of each of these.⁹⁴ Institutions preparing teachers of English should not assume that in their courses in literature and composition these students somehow gradually acquire these skills themselves and incidentally also learn how to help others develop them.

PREPARING TO TEACH SPEECH

As is widely recognized, a four-year college program for preparing teachers of secondary school English imposes serious limitations upon the number of courses demanded by the complexities and scope of their subject. The recommendations of experienced English teachers for preparation to teach literature alone total at least 39 semester credits. In addition, the teacher needs courses in advanced composition, the English language, journalism, and speech. But whatever concessions have to be made to fit a program within the limits of four years must not be at the expense of some preparation in speech.

The college program cannot be expected to prepare the candidate to meet all conceivable demands upon him as a teacher of English. However, the very nature of the teaching process that draws daily—in fact, hourly—upon the teacher's ability to speak the English language and to help his pupils develop this competence attests to the importance of his being proficient in speech. Limited though this training may be, it should provide him with at least the minimum, first, in developing adequate personal speech—for the teacher of English is something of a model—and, second, in becoming acquainted with what may be identified as two types of speech: original and interpretative. "Original" speech includes discussion, debating, and public speaking; "interpretative" speech, oral reading and dramatics.

⁹⁴ *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*, pp. 204-208. Here are a detailed list of activities and some criteria of speech competence.

Through whatever preparation in speech and listening the future teacher has, he should understand the nature of oral communication and of the relationship of his participation in it to his background and personality. The following comments upon the importance of this subject appear in Volume I of this Curriculum Series:

Effective communication involves first of all speech and listening. It requires ability to express one's own ideas clearly and exercise critical judgment in regard to ideas expressed by others. It demands understanding of the processes of group discussion and ability to work with others to sift ideas and to establish conclusions which are based on sound evidence and represent the combined thinking of the group. Clarity of thought is basic to the whole program. . . . Research in listening, especially at the college freshman level, is daily producing new evidence concerning techniques required for intelligent understanding of what is said, for examining it critically, and applying it to problems in hand. . . .

* * * * *

The college course in speech fundamentals goes beyond the program in high school in its emphasis upon understanding of the speech process. It includes such matters as recognition of the functions of language; insight into the relationship between speech behavior and its personal and social determinants; understanding by the student of the nature, sources, and consequences of his own speech habits; appreciation of the significance of linguistic environment for manner of speaking; and the acquisition of usable knowledge about the standards of critical thinking, pronunciation, and language usage characteristic of any given college community. Increased emphasis is also placed upon the maturity of the student's speech and thinking, as reflected in the matters he talks about in the classroom, and the kinds of critical comments he is capable of making about his own performance and that of others.⁹⁵

Basic to the teacher's developing an understanding of the nature of speech useful to him both as a person and as a teacher of English are certain competences identified by Robert C. Pooley.⁹⁶ He recommends that the future teacher of English be

⁹⁵ *The English Language Arts*, pp. 144-146.

⁹⁶ Robert C. Pooley, "The English Teacher's Preparation in Speech," *English Journal*, XLV (April, 1956), 181-187, 200.

required to take courses that will give him an understanding of the nature and function of the spoken language and thus enable him to help his students gain increased competence in speaking and writing the language and in listening to it and reading it, silently and orally. According to Pooley, the teacher should have "an elementary knowledge of the physiology of speech"; knowledge of phonemics leading to the development of a scientific attitude in pronunciation; knowledge of the history of sounds; knowledge of the forms of English words; and knowledge of English syntax. Pooley says, "These areas of knowledge and skill are common ground of teachers of speech and teachers of English. It is through them that we know the nature and characteristics of the language we use in communication." Depending upon the nature of the institution, the student may find these courses in the departments of English, speech, or linguistics.

The future teacher should also recognize speech as an intellectual discipline and should study the techniques of voice and diction necessary to effective speaking and oral reading and become acquainted with and have guided experience in the many kinds of speech activities appropriate for an English class: classroom and group discussions, recitations, panel discussions and presentations, informal and formal oral reports, oral interpretation of literature by himself, by individual pupils, and by groups of pupils, dramatizations of literary selections, teaching of plays as selections written to be enacted on a stage, conducting meetings, various forms of debate. Because all of these activities necessarily involve an audience and because many if not most of a person's waking hours are spent listening, particularly in classrooms, he should be prepared to help students increase their competence in listening or "auding."⁹⁷

Further, he needs to become sufficiently acquainted with speech therapy as a science to realize the importance of his referring pupils having speech defects to a trained speech therapist rather

⁹⁷ For suggestions on the meaning and teaching of auding and listening, see Don Brown, "Teaching Aural English," *English Journal*, XXXIX (March, 1950), 128-136; Joseph Mersand, "Why Teach Listening?" *English Journal*, XL (May, 1956), 260-263; and Ralph G. Nichols, "Listening Instruction in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (May, 1952), 158-174.

than as an amateur daring to tamper with conditions that may cause a handicapped student to become socially frustrated and even maladjusted.

He should also learn how to operate and know the value of using mechanical devices for playing recordings and tapes of readers' oral interpretation of literature and for recording students' talks, discussions, and dramatic performances. Students need to hear recordings of their voices. He will find radio, educational television, and some films useful also.

Few colleges can provide a student with all these backgrounds without asking him to take a sequence of courses in the speech department.

SAMPLE PROGRAMS

Despite the difficulty of providing room in a college student's schedule for all the courses and priorities needed by this future teacher of English, some colleges do manage to include required courses in speech as well as in literature, composition, and language. Some include in their freshman English courses, especially those called communication courses, instruction and practice in discussions, oral reports, and oral interpretation of literature.⁹⁸

Some examples of programs for future teachers of English requiring courses in speech are included in Chapter 4. One of these, the Language Arts Concentration at the University of Kansas, illustrates the required speech courses. The student electing the "English option" in this program must complete 40 semester credits in English, American, and world literature; courses in freshman, sophomore, and advanced composition; and a course in modern English grammar. Then he must also complete at least three courses of speech: Fundamentals of Speech, Fundamentals of Debate, and Fundamentals of Play Production. Room in the student's schedule for this extensive coverage of the conventional areas of English and three additional courses in

⁹⁸ For descriptions of representative courses and programs in composition and communication see Francis Shoemaker and Louis Forsdale, eds., *Communication in General Education* (Dubuque, Ia.: William C. Brown Company, Publishers, 1960).

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speech was provided by the decision of the university that this combination of English and related fields would constitute both a major and a minor. Thus the student who elects the options in the Language Arts Concentration is not required to complete a minor in an outside field.

Careful scheduling and planning will enable the prospective teacher at Kansas to take more than the 48-credit minimum. While no more than 40 credits in any one subject field is allowed for graduation without special permission, those enrolling in the English option can supplement their programs with more courses in speech, journalism, American civilization, and the humanities. Likewise, those enrolled in the Theater and Drama and the Public Speaking options can take additional courses in speech, English, and journalism; those in journalism may add courses in journalism as well as in English and speech. A total of 19 semester credits of electives is possible within the 124 semester credits required for graduation.

A catalog for Montana State College says, "The students selecting majors in social studies, physical science, biology, music, and *English* should note the comprehensive nature of the program outlined in each area major, the purpose of which is to give the beginning teacher an understanding of the entire field and to provide the best preparation possible for teaching the several courses which are usually offered within the subject matter areas."⁹⁹

Two teaching majors are listed: "English—Broad Field" and "English—Composition and Literature." The former lists courses totaling 59 quarter credits and includes Public Speaking or Oral and Written Composition, Radio and Television Announcing, Advanced Public Speaking, Elementary Play Production, Play Direction, and Principles of Argumentation and Debate or Principles of Group Discussion.

The course descriptions indicate that students who complete this program receive training in "writing, speaking, reading, and listening, aimed at developing recognition of the principles and skill in the techniques which apply to all communication situations"; "practice in all types of announcing"; advanced public

⁹⁹ *Montana State College Bulletin*, Catalog Number 1956-57, p. 115.

speaking which offers "further study and practice in oral communication" and which in the summer quarter is "adapted to the special needs of teachers"; stagecraft, acting, directing, and production techniques in the educational theater, and "skills in the reasoned advocacy of a proposition" or "patterns of group problem-solving." Though it is not included as a requirement, there is a course in oral reading "strongly recommended for those preparing to teach."

At the University of Utah "in harmony with modern theory of teacher education certain academic departments within the university are offering to prospective teachers composite teaching majors in lieu of the traditional teaching major and teaching minor. In view of secondary school objectives and programs it generally seems more desirable to provide teachers with a broad academic background in an area of knowledge rather than a somewhat limited specialization within one division of an area"¹⁰⁰—for example, in language arts rather than in English or speech.

The composite major in the language arts at the University of Utah, has, beyond the 9 quarter credits of courses in basic communications required by the university, a list of specified requirements: 30 credits in English, 36 in speech, and 9 in journalism.

The following English courses are required:

- Critical Introduction to Fiction
- Critical Introduction to Poetry
- Advanced English Grammar
- Advanced Expository Writing (or any course in creative writing)
- Masterpieces of English and American Literature
- The Teaching of English in High School

The following courses in speech are required:

- Basic Communication, Oral and Written Composition
- Debate
- Principles of Oral Reading

¹⁰⁰ *Bulletin of the University of Utah, The General Catalog, 1960-1961, p. 77.*

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Voice Improvement
Interpretation
Fundamentals of Acting
Beginning Theater Productions
Advanced Public Speaking
Stage Directions
Psychology of Speech
Methods of Teaching Speech
Classroom Problems in Speech and Hearing Disorders

The following courses in journalism are required:

Introduction to Journalism
Newspaper Reporting
Journalism and Education

This program seems to give disproportionate emphasis to speech apparently at the expense of courses in Shakespeare, drama, world literature, contemporary literature, literary criticism, and literature for adolescents.

At Sacramento (California) State College the five-year program for the secondary school credential with a major in language arts consists of 34 semester credits. Six of these are in a course in "Oral and Written Expression." In addition, the following speech courses are required: Advanced Public Speaking, Play Production, Speech for Teachers, Oral Reading, and Semantics.

The 60 quarter credits major in language arts at Minnesota State College at St. Cloud includes 16 credits in the field of speech. This major requirement is in addition to the institution-wide requirement for 12 credits in "Communication," an integrated freshman program in "listening, reading, writing, speaking." (An additional 4 credits are required of all students whose cumulative average in the communication sequence is less than "C.") The required speech courses are Dramatics; Public Speaking; Conducting a Meeting; Argumentation, Discussion, and Debate; and Speech Science.

The University of Minnesota also offers a program in the language arts comprised of courses in English, speech, library

science, and journalism. The *Bulletin* contains this statement about the requirements:

The new course of study in the language arts for the secondary schools of Minnesota requires a teacher proficient in the broad area of the language arts, including both speech and English. It assumes ability to teach the principles of effective speech and writing and intelligent understanding of currently acceptable levels of usage. It necessitates knowledge of current books as well as the literary heritage. It demands acquaintance with and intelligent use of the mass media of communication, such as radio, newspapers and magazines, motion pictures, and television.¹⁰¹

The candidate spends his first two years in the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts, meeting university requirements. For his major in the language arts in the College of Education he must meet the following requirements:

1. The student elects one of two fields, English or speech, and completes the course requirements listed for his core subject. A student may not offer more than 42 quarter credits in this field.
2. The student must also complete 23 or 24 credits in the second field. Not more than 40 credits will be accepted in this field.
3. In addition 12 or 13 credits are required in journalism or library science.

English as the Core Subject (48 credits beyond freshman English) includes Introduction to Literature (chronological study of English literature), Shakespeare, American Literature, Introduction to Modern English, Advanced Writing, and electives.

Speech as the Second Field with English as the Core Subject includes Fundamentals of Speech, Introduction to the Theater Arts, and electives.

All language arts majors will take a three-credit course in journalism. In addition they will take 8 to 12 credits in library science . . . or 9 credits in journalism selected from specialized courses in high school journalism and the mass media. This program, too, is designed to help the future teacher cope with

¹⁰¹ *Bulletin of University of Minnesota, College of Education*, 1960-1962, pp. 43-45.

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the range of his assignments in schools. The college of education requires him to take also the course in literature for adolescents. The electives most commonly taken are courses in modern poetry and modern drama. According to the teachers' recommendations mentioned earlier, he would benefit also from electing other courses in contemporary literature and in literary criticism.

Because the kinds of knowledge of and skills in speech and dramatics are not likely to be included in conventional English courses or to be incidentally acquired by a future teacher, provision should be made for them in other courses in the program taken by the prospective teacher of secondary school English.

PREPARATION IN JOURNALISM

The teacher of English is usually the only member of a secondary school faculty assumed to be competent to help students publish their newspapers and yearbooks and, even, to teach a class in the rudiments of journalism, unless the school happens to have a journalism teacher.¹⁰² Although such mass media of communication as newspapers and periodicals are also used in social studies classes, the English teacher finds himself responsible for teaching students something about the makeup of newspapers, the organization of pages and sections, the rationale for organizing them in a certain way, evidence of editorial policies and their effects upon editorials and treatment of news reports and pictures, characteristics of journalistic writing, semantics, and propaganda analysis. In short, he tries to help them learn to read a newspaper intelligently. Quite often, however, he has to take these classroom and extracurricular responsibilities without benefit of any college preparation or journalistic experience.

As the preceding examples indicate, some colleges and universities require or recommend courses in journalism in programs for future teachers of English. Some provide options between courses in speech and drama and those in journalism. Some assume that these aspects of a teacher's preparation will be taken

¹⁰² Some high schools offer courses in journalism either as supplements to regular English courses or, as in Evanston Township High School, as substitutes for an English course. For information, see *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*, pp. 346-348.

care of in courses in the methods of teaching English. But many apparently make no provisions for preparing this teacher to face these responsibilities in the schools.

Many colleges have majors and minors for students interested in journalism. One example of how these students who intend to teach are accommodated is the Language Arts Concentration at the University of Kansas. The student who elects the option in journalism has to complete the 24 credits in English courses, a two-credit course in the fundamentals of speech, and 22 credits in journalism. Journalism courses cover areas of communication in society, reporting, editing, news photography, printing, advertising, and school journalism.

The University of Utah requires all students electing the composite major in language arts to take three courses in journalism. The University of Minnesota requires all language arts majors to take at least one course in journalism; those interested in journalism may elect nine more credits. But obviously journalism has a low priority in many institutions' programs for the future teacher of English. Here is another example of how inservice programs can help the teacher assigned classes for which he is not adequately prepared and the teacher who is developing a strong interest in this particular aspect of his field.

SUMMARY

To qualify the future teacher of English to meet the standards of preparation established by the NCTE committee and be competent to fulfill the teaching and advisory assignments given by his school, his college should carefully examine its requirements for its teaching major in English to see that essential training in speech is required and some introduction to journalism provided. He should be required to take at least two speech courses: one that will develop his competence in personal and public speaking and the other that will develop his skill in the oral interpretation of literature, including some introduction to dramatics. He may have opportunity to utilize dramatics workshops for experience in play production and direction.

But at best, time in a college program will permit him to get

only an introduction to the knowledge and skills essential to teaching speech and journalism effectively. This eternal problem of time and the importance of recognizing the interrelatedness of learning recall Tyler's reminder that teacher education institutions make the most of the close relationships among the three aspects of the future teacher's preparation. For example, the student who has any idea that he may become interested in teaching English should be urged to elect within the program of general education some courses and activities that will reinforce his preparation as a teacher. Because preparation in speech and journalism may be slighted or even omitted from requirements for teachers, this student should use his electives in the general education and the academic program to begin to develop his knowledge and competence in this fundamental area of speech and the supporting field of journalism. Courses in psychology and sociology may give him insight into the process by which one learns language, particularly to speak it, the relationship of language and society, and the place of mass media of communication in society.

If the college has a required course in directed observations as a part of the sequence of courses in professional education, this future teacher of English should be assigned to make some of his visits to classes in speech, dramatics, journalism, and classes of English teachers known to teach speech and journalism effectively in their regular English classes. He should be encouraged also to attend school plays, examine local school newspapers and yearbooks, and read school news in local newspapers. Then in the course in methods the instructor should give adequate attention to speech, dramatics, journalism, and related activities English teachers often have to guide. Finally, during student teaching or the internship the student should engage actively in the extracurricular activities usually directed by teachers of English. These two important aspects of the preparation of a teacher in the field of English as defined by teachers' assignments in the schools can be considerably strengthened by the candidate's and adviser's capitalizing upon the college's resources available in programs for the general, academic, and professional education of the teacher.

Communities employing teachers of English thus prepared can feel somewhat more assured that the 90 per cent or so of high school students who do not elect courses in speech and dramatics will be getting competent instruction in the powers of oral communication so important to the citizen in a democratic society. Students will also be able to develop special interests in speaking and dramatics. Students who have interests and abilities in journalism will be able to do likewise. However, the community will also have to assume the responsibility for providing teachers with the kind of inservice education programs discussed in Chapter 7 of this volume.

THE MINOR IN ENGLISH

Discussing a teaching "minor" in English may seem a contradiction of the emphasis throughout this volume on the central importance of a teacher's being as well prepared in his subject matter as time and his talents will allow. No compromise with this principle is intended here.

Some critics of education, including some faculty members within the colleges and universities, question the merit of preparing candidates to teach a subject with only the preparation provided in a minor. They believe, first, that the credits would be better used to strengthen the major and, second, that by recommending for certification a candidate to teach a minor, the colleges and universities are only encouraging secondary school administrators to assign a teacher classes he is really not prepared to teach. Under ideal conditions these arguments would be hard to refute. But conditions have never been ideal nor are they likely to be.

Apparently, an administrator does not willfully assign a teacher subjects outside his major and minor. The discrepancy between demand and supply may force hard choices upon him. For example, as reported earlier from *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, the demand for teachers of English in just one year, 1958-1959, exceeded the supply by 27 per cent.¹⁰³ Although the number of new teachers of English graduated in

¹⁰³ NCTE, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

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1961 was an increase of 14.7 per cent over the number graduated in 1960, the 1961 number was still below that of 1950. In the meantime, enrollments in secondary schools increased sharply each year and will continue to do so. Unfortunately, the shortage of English teachers will likewise continue.

What choices are open to an administrator who cannot find a qualified candidate to teach a subject? He can, of course, drop the subject or the class from the school's program, or he can abolish those particular sections, say, in sophomore and junior English, and distribute those students among the other English teachers' classes, thereby materially increasing the enrollment in those classes and aggravating undesirable conditions already plaguing English teachers. Or he can assign a teacher with a minor or even less preparation so that the students will have at least some instruction in the subject rather than none. Or he can ask his board of education to request the community to support a sharply increased budget for teachers enabling him to try to hire enough teachers so that they will be asked to teach only subjects within their majors, provided, of course, he can find enough teachers and that they are willing to carry on nonteaching school chores—supervising the library, study halls, corridors, cafeteria and doing clerical work for the office—during periods when there are no classes for them in their major subjects.

The problem of properly assigning teachers is particularly acute in the small high school. Over one-half of the 26,000 public high schools in the United States have 200 or fewer pupils. The refusal of some educational institutions to prepare teachers in at least two subjects does not eliminate the administrator's problem. Although obviously the colleges cannot anticipate the future teaching assignments of their candidates, they can most realistically meet some of the possibilities by preparing their candidates in at least two fields, including methods, and, where possible, practice teaching in both subjects. Furthermore, candidates need a major and minor to qualify for credentials in the many states requiring applicants to be prepared in two fields.

Studies reported in Chapter 4 show that English teachers often have to teach other subjects too. A study of English teachers in Wisconsin in 1958 revealed that 54 per cent of 1,690 English

teachers were teaching English and at least one other subject; one was teaching English and *five* other subjects. Haugh reports that in a survey made in Kansas in 1953, only 40 per cent of the English teachers were teaching English full time.¹⁰⁴ And other reports referred to in Chapter 4 indicate the widespread practice, even in large cities, of assigning English classes to teachers not having even a minor in college English. A discussion of a minor in English is not intended to suggest a lowering of standards of preparation but rather of strengthening the preparation of teachers in other fields who are likely to be teaching some English classes if they happen to have even a discernible cluster of credits in college English courses.

To achieve the purposes intended to be fulfilled by permitting a candidate to qualify for a minor in English, these requirements must be carefully planned. Merely a collection of units in miscellaneous courses in English and related subjects will not do. Instead, the requirements should help prepare him not only to teach competently the usual aspects of English but also provide him with enough depth and scope in the subject to enable him later to study graduate courses in it. In discussing the importance of this principle, Tuttle states:

Minor programs must be given careful thought. Every hour must contribute as richly as possible to the preparation of an acceptable teacher. The preparing institution must motivate its graduates to extend their preparation in English if they find themselves assigned to teach the subject with only a minor in it. Since salary increases, as well as advanced certificates, frequently depend on the accumulation of *graduate* credits, the minor must be large enough to permit teachers to enroll for graduate classes. Otherwise the teacher will remain underprepared in a subject he is teaching, perhaps throughout his career.

At present many persons get into English teaching by accident. They may have accumulated a heterogeneous collection of courses that add up to the right number of hours. Some colleges will rec-

¹⁰⁴ Oscar M. Haugh, "The Problem of Preparing English Teachers for the High Schools of Kansas," a speech delivered at the 38th Annual Conference of the Kansas College Teachers of English held at St. Scholastica College, Atchinson, Kansas, April 23, 1954.

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commend them for certificates even if their courses form no defensible pattern, and even if their grades are low in the field.¹⁰⁵

All of the 32 universities included in the survey made in the preparation of Chapter 4 require candidates to meet their requirements for at least one minor in addition to the major. The teaching minor in English in these institutions consists of 12 to 24 semester credits. The most commonly required subjects are the following:

Freshman English—one year

Survey of English Literature—one year

Survey of American literature—one year

A course in Shakespeare

A course in advanced composition

A course in the nature of the English language

At least three of the universities require a course in the methods of teaching secondary school English.

Some universities either permit or require two teaching minors. In these cases, the major is somewhat reduced in scope, as is each minor. One university requires in addition to the English major (a minimum of 18 semester credits beyond freshman English) a related English minor of at least 12 credits beyond the freshman year and a second minor of the same extent in some other subject. The related minor may be in the teaching of reading, speech and drama, modern language, and journalism. One university permits a candidate to pick either a major of 32 semester credits and a minor of 16 credits or a major of 20 units and two minors of 16 credits each. Another university requires at least one major of 28 semester credits and two minors; at least two-thirds of the candidate's total credits must be in these three subject matter areas.

The minor in English at the University of Wisconsin consists of 24 approved semester credits, including freshman English, two semesters of sophomore literature, one semester of intermediate

¹⁰⁵ Donald R. Tuttle, "Fenn College: Secondary-School English," *The Education of Teachers: Curriculum Programs* (Washington: NEA, 1959), p. 370.

or advanced composition, a semester course in the history of the English language for teachers, and a full year of one of the following: Shakespeare or Elizabethan drama, Romantic and Victorian poetry; major American poets and prose writers. The student also has to take a course in the methods of teaching secondary school English and do part of his student teaching in an English class. Finally, as was reported in Chapter 4, he must maintain a 2.75 grade point average (on a 4.0 scale) in English courses to be certified to teach English.

Stanford's minor includes a minimum of 35 quarter credits in English courses plus methods of teaching English and actual experience in teaching English classes:

Freshman English

Introduction to the English Language

Shakespeare

English Literature of the Nineteenth Century

Two courses in American literature

Speech for Classroom Teachers

Elective, preferably in the English novel, advanced composition, English grammar

In addition the candidate has to take

Methods in the Teaching of English

Student teaching in an English class

The consensus seems to be that a minimum minor in English should be about 24 semester credits including a workable combination of the following: freshman English, intermediate or advanced composition, Modern English grammar, English literature (especially including the 19th century), American literature (including some contemporary literature), and electives in Shakespeare and speech. In addition, the candidate should be required to take the methods of teaching English and do part of his student teaching in an English class in order to reinforce and extend his knowledge of literature and the English language as well as learn some of the rudiments of teaching his subject.

Such a program would be an enormous improvement over the

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absurd minimums—one as low as six units—accepted by some states in permitting candidates to teach English on a part-time or even full-time basis. Encouraging, however, is the trend observable in Fisher's and Slaughter's studies of states' requirements as reported in Chapter 4 and in its Appendix. All the reported changes in minimum requirements, which would be for the candidate with a teaching minor, are increases. They range from the modest increase made by New Mexico and North Dakota, from 15 to 18 semester credits, to the 100 per cent increase made by Connecticut, from 15 to 30 credits.

In the interest, then, of strengthening the subject matter preparation of teachers, members of college faculties inclined to ignore the serious national problems schools have in properly staffing classes should cease opposing programs for minors in the hope that, if ignored, the problem will go away. Instead, they should continue to strengthen requirements for both the teaching major and the teaching minor, to continue to recruit an increasing number of their best students throughout the institution, and to work toward requiring five years of college preparation for all future high school teachers.

ACADEMIC COMPETENCE OF NONMAJORS

Another aspect of the teacher's academic preparation is the serious problem of encouraging a teacher to return to college to study a subject he is assigned to teach despite his lack of preparation in it. As was indicated earlier, English classes are those most likely to be handed around to members of the staff who happen to have a free period or to available residents of the community. This problem is complicated by several factors. One, of course, is the continuing shortage of teachers with qualified majors or minors in English. Another is that, ironically, the teacher who needs additional college preparation in English may not be able to qualify for it, principally because his background is weak. And if he should qualify for admission to a college or university for graduate study, he may not be able to take a particular course related to his teaching for lack of a prerequisite. A third factor is local school boards' unwise policy of permitting

only graduate courses to be counted by a teacher trying to qualify for certain increases in salary. Consequently, when this teacher goes to summer school or takes late afternoon and evening classes, he may have to take advanced courses in his major field, a subject he may no longer be teaching, or in professional education. Neither choice is likely to help him improve his academic background for teaching English. This phase of the problem is discussed in Chapter 7 on inservice education.

School boards should review their policies governing recognition given teachers who return to college for further study. They must encourage the teacher who wishes to study a subject the district itself has asked him to teach. Any course, undergraduate or graduate, that the teacher and his subject matter adviser believe appropriate to his preparation for his teaching assignment should be accepted by his school board as meeting their requirements for credit toward professional advancement.

Because of the seriousness of this problem when many veterans returned to teaching following World War II, Stanford established in 1949 a Master of Arts in Teaching degree designed especially for experienced teachers, already having a teaching credential, who wish to take courses in subjects they are now teaching but for which they are not adequately prepared. This degree is supervised by the University Committee on Teacher Education. Several departments in the School of Humanities and Sciences have agreed to accept as candidates for this degree teachers whose background in the subject to be studied is weak, but whose academic records indicate their ability to do acceptable academic work. These departments permit these teachers to take whatever courses the teachers and their advisers think most appropriate for the teachers' purposes. In fact, one of the departments in the social sciences that does not otherwise accept M. A. candidates does accept teachers for this kind of MAT. Candidates for this MAT take about two-thirds of their courses in the academic department and related fields and one-third in advanced courses in professional education, including one in the methods of teaching the subject they are now teaching without proper preparation. This plan facilitates teachers' getting the subject matter they need regardless of the level at which it is

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taught and despite their not having the academic background customarily required of graduate students.

Through such arrangements and some of the inservice programs described in Chapter 7 teachers can be continuously studying subjects they are teaching.¹⁰⁶ However comprehensive even an undergraduate major may be, the beginning teacher is still a beginner. As a beginner he is probably finding out how much he does not know about his subject. He, too, can benefit from continuing self-education and inservice and graduate programs. But through conferences, departmental meetings, and team teaching, he can also help his colleagues who happen to be not so well prepared in subject matter. In addition, however, the school board and administrators should make some systematic arrangement for the continued strengthening of their teachers' preparation for teaching. The resources of the whole educational enterprise in this nation may be coordinated to help teachers in their pursuit of academic excellence throughout the American educational system.

GENERAL SUMMARY

Preparation for teaching must include general education, specialized study, and professional training. The principal concern in this chapter has been with the content and design of programs in general education and English. In these, prospective teachers receive 80 per cent of their college preparation for the varied responsibilities and assignments of high school English teachers.

Only college faculties that undertake vigorous and continued self-study can make needed distinctions between enduring truths and comfortable but obsolete assumptions about teaching, about teacher preparation, about English as a subject for study in secondary schools. The perfect program has not been devised; all fall short of their goals. Continued study and revision are necessary if the traditional curriculum for English majors is to

¹⁰⁶ See particularly the inservice courses the consultants for the Portland High School Curriculum Study designed for the Portland English teachers: *Education for College*, pp. 42, 91-92.

provide sufficient range, if the broad "area" major is to give enough depth, if general education is to accomplish its purposes.

Perhaps even more urgent is the academic preparation of the nonmajor. Rising admission standards, stricter credential requirements, and vigorous recruitment will continue to bring better prepared candidates into teaching. But until these developments become more general and as long as small and sometimes meagerly supported secondary schools are widespread, the problem of the nonmajor remains. Through raising institutional requirements and joining in the work of regional, state, and national organizations seeking higher standards, college faculties can make an invaluable contribution to the teaching of English in secondary schools.

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PREVIEW

THE CASE FOR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

THE PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND OF ENGLISH TEACHERS

PSYCHOLOGICAL BACKGROUNDS

THE PHILOSOPHY AND STRUCTURE OF AMERICAN PUBLIC
SECONDARY EDUCATION

THE COURSE IN METHODS

DIRECTED OBSERVATIONS IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY
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CHAPTER 6

Preparation in Professional Education

THE CASE FOR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

THE THIRD SEGMENT of the future teacher's preparation is professional education. Unquestionably, preparation in general education and in academic subjects is vital to professional training. Conversely, some of the preparation in professional matters contributes to general education and to competence in academic subject matter. In speaking of introductory courses in educational psychology, philosophy, and sociology, Woodring writes, "These will be designed to bridge the gap between liberal education and professional education but will also be accepted as a legitimate part of the education of all citizens for it will be recognized that an understanding of the schools and of the educative process should be a part of the intellectual equipment of all liberally educated people."¹

As pointed out earlier, Ralph W. Tyler emphasizes the "interrelationships of what has been divided up into general education, education for the teaching field, and professional education."² These interrelationships depend, of course, upon the entire insti-

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¹ Paul Woodring, *New Directions in Teacher Education* (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957), p. 76.

² See p. 229.

tution's accepting its responsibility for the education of teachers.

As defined in the Introduction, professional education should help the future teacher focus his entire college education upon how, in the schools of the present and the future, he may help his pupils learn, counsel them, make them aware of the culture in which they live and of other cultures in the world, and meet his responsibilities as a member of a school staff and of a profession. Despite its scope, professional education should absorb no more than 20 per cent of his college education.

PROBLEMS

In the current concern with quality in teacher education, recommendations for improved professional training are less consistent than those for general and academic preparation. This section discusses some questions frequently asked about the kind and quality of professional education given future teachers.

A conference sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education and held at the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences, Palo Alto, California, discussed many of these questions. For the most part the participants at the conference were professional educators displaying an interest in improving their own offerings. The conference report is entitled *Teacher Education: A Reappraisal*. Although the report represents only the appraisal of the conference participants concerning commonly expressed criticisms, it does offer a convenient way of summarizing some of these charges. That evidence to support many of the criticisms cannot be supplied should be manifestly clear; still, in considering ways of strengthening present programs, educators need to be aware of current opinions, even those which sometimes seem unjustified.

In answer to the fundamental question, "Is there anything of essential importance to a teacher in the way of preparation beyond knowledge of the subject he teaches?" the participants at the conference gave a "unanimous but qualified 'yes'." The consensus was that a liberal education and knowledge of subject matter are not enough to produce the kind of teacher that members of the conference think American schools need.

Conference members qualified the "yes" because they were convinced that a close examination of the "quality and scholarly validity of the material in many professional education courses" as they are currently taught is long overdue. Some of the "charges" against professional education discussed during the conference are listed here in part.

1. Many competent teaching candidates are being forced to take formal professional courses they don't need.
2. Education courses in some colleges are being proliferated beyond the warrants of valid information, concepts, ideas, and, in some instances, beyond the abilities of their instructors.
3. The study of education in too many institutions is predominantly missionary, sentimental, and tender-minded; research will not validate some of the methods being widely promoted.
4. Some teachers are misusing in their classrooms concepts, generalizations, and methods of inquiry in the behavioral sciences which are valid only in terms of the constructs arranged by behavioral scientists in unique experimental situations.
5. Some teachers lack specialized knowledge of the subjects they are teaching; they offer their students thin and truncated copies of courses they have taken themselves, without reference to the needs and problems of their students.
6. Prospective teachers through practice can learn to analyze, criticize, and control their own teaching behavior, but many teacher preparation programs fail to develop this ability in systematized fashion.
7. School systems in this country are playing a laggard role in the development of functional, continuing training programs for beginning and specialist teachers; wide opportunity exists for much greater collaboration between school systems and universities in increasing competence.
8. The schools lack adequate numbers of trained supervisors capable of guiding the practice teaching of beginning teachers. The analysis of teaching behavior requires highly specialized skill, knowledge, and training which many supervisors lack. As a result, much practice teaching for beginners amounts to little more than uncritical immersion in tasks of the school.

9. Many teacher education programs are deficient in aiding beginning teachers to inquire into the educational process—the act of teaching—and in the decision-making which must both precede and follow the teaching act.
10. Professional educators have not yet developed an adequate unifying theory; until such schema are available, the design of alternate programs of teacher education must go begging.
11. No respectable basis for professional education is likely to exist until responsible scholars undertake studies in depth to validate content.³

Many of these criticisms refer to general courses in professional education, rather than to the courses especially designed for teachers of English. Several, such as items 2, 3, and 5 are not subject to verification through scholarly research. For the most part this chapter discusses those aspects of the professional education of the teacher of English which are touched upon by items 1, 2, 6, 7, and 8. In fact, this entire volume is an attempt to discuss and recommend programs which will not be subject to these criticisms. Members of faculties responsible for the professional education of the future teacher should examine them, study the evidence available concerning their validity, and take steps to apply them to their own situations. As is evident throughout Chapter 3 of this book, many safeguards are urged for strengthening not only programs and courses in professional education but also for assessing qualifications of faculty assigned to these courses.

Through follow-up studies (described in Chapter 8) an institution may discover what value its graduates attach to their preparation in professional education. However valid their judgments may be, these teachers do contribute to the reputation of professional education. In studying the reactions of 100 high school teachers in 94 California schools, Bond found that only one-third rated high what they considered to be the contribution of educa-

³ Elmer R. Smith, ed., *Teacher Education: A Reappraisal* (New York: Harper & Row, 1962), pp. 14-15. Copyright ©, 1962 by Elmer R. Smith. Quotations from this book are reprinted with permission of Harper & Row, Publishers, Incorporated, and Elmer R. Smith.

tion courses to their self-appraised competence as teachers.⁴ They rated high, though, the aspects of professional education which helped them to understand the social setting and purposes of the secondary schools and to understand how a person learns. Saunders studied the differences in the opinions of various groups of people involved with courses in professional education: instructors of education courses, student teachers, supervisors of student teachers, and students who had not yet done their practice teaching. The responses of the instructors differed markedly from those of students still in class. However, the differences were not so great between the instructors' judgments and those of student teachers.⁵

As reported in Chapter 4, Willard and Mees, Carrier, and the NEA Research Division also surveyed teachers' recommendations for strengthening programs of teacher education. High among the recommendations were practical courses in methods of teaching English, practice teaching in English classes, courses in remedial teaching, courses in psychology, especially those offering useful insights for solving common problems of pedagogy: class management, for example, or individual differences in large classes. By implication, not only should the content of foundation courses be valuable, but instructors must convince more students of this value by demonstrating the contribution these courses can make to solving teaching problems. In concluding the discussion of the charges against professional education listed earlier, the participants in the conference on the reappraisal of professional education agreed that:

More positive action is called for than the mere criticism of professional work as it exists in the colleges. The conferees recommend, therefore, that serious and competent studies in depth of the areas presumed to be essential be carried on. These studies should be extensive and conducted by competent scholars. This should be done both to avoid proliferation and superficiality, and to discover,

⁴ Jesse A. Bond, "The Effectiveness of Professional Education in the Preparation of High School Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 35 (October, 1949), 334-345.

⁵ Jack O. L. Saunders, "The Relationship of Preparatory Program Contributions to Teacher Competences," *Journal of Educational Research*, 49 (May, 1956), 697-702.

increase, and organize valid content of the professional areas. Such a scholarly effort in teacher education is imperative and overdue; it is not likely that any worthy base for professional education can be brought about otherwise.⁶

All who are interested in improving the quality of teachers being sent into the schools should welcome such thorough reappraisal of college and university programs.

COOPERATION WITHIN THE INSTITUTIONS

The case for professional education is strengthened by genuine cooperation within institutions educating teachers. A cooperative planning committee can improve programs and individual courses.

The reappraisal conference at Palo Alto considered only the professional aspects of teacher education. The academic areas might undergo a similar reevaluation. As one may question certain professional courses, one could also ask whether just any course in Shakespeare or English grammar or literary criticism is *per se* suitable preparation for the teacher of English.

Just as instructors in academic departments can use the resources of the departments of philosophy, classics, modern European languages and literature, fine arts, music, history, or education to strengthen courses, so instructors in education can and do draw upon the special talents of colleagues in psychology, history, political science, English, philosophy, sociology, geography, statistics, or anthropology. Thus students will benefit from a larger measure of the resources within an institution. Chapter 4 offers examples of cooperative arrangements and Woodring's list of basic agreements regarding professional education.

COOPERATION BETWEEN DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION AND ENGLISH

One valuable link between the departments of education and English can be a liaison committee of members of both depart-

⁶ Elmer R. Smith, ed., *op. cit.*, p. 19.

ments who administer requirements planned cooperatively. Another is staffing courses in methods of teaching secondary school English and in literature for adolescents and assigning responsibility for supervising students during their practice teaching or internship in English classes.

In some institutions these instructors are in either the Department of Education or the Department of English. In some, these responsibilities are divided between the two departments. Instructors in the Department of English may teach courses in the methods of teaching language, composition, and literature, as well as subject courses; those in education may teach such methods or a course in literature for adolescents and supervise student teachers and interns. In others, an instructor has a joint appointment in the two departments.

One important advantage of an instructor's having an appointment in only one of these departments is that he has an obvious affiliation with a "home base." A single departmental affiliation may bring a more manageable assignment, more time for research and writing, and only one set of requirements for promotions. Being able to concentrate on developments within a single field, the instructor is able to develop greater depth in his understanding of both scholarship and current developments in his field. If in the education department, he may develop an extensive knowledge of developmental psychology or the psychology of learning, may read many contemporary books written for adolescents, and may maintain more extensive contacts with the public schools. If in the English department, he may read widely in modern literary criticism or engage in scholarly studies in language or rhetoric. It is important that instructors assigned solely to English or to education maintain reasonable understanding of important developments in all fields which may affect the teaching of English. However, a single appointment makes possible concentration in a special field.

Although a single appointment may help the instructor avoid interdepartmental hostilities, when, sadly, they exist, an important disadvantage is that the instructor may have no official status in the other department. While he may be a member of a liaison committee representing both departments and have

established cordial personal and professional relations with members of both departments, he normally is a voting member of only one. Despite a lack of an official appointment in both departments, many instructors have closely coordinated the resources of both. Whatever the arrangement may be, the institution and the instructor must fully realize the importance of cooperation between the two departments in planning a program and in recruiting capable students for careers in teaching.

JOINT APPOINTMENTS

A joint appointment in the two departments also has its advantages and disadvantages, as a means of strengthening the professional education program. It offers special opportunities but is more complex than that in a single department. A person having a joint appointment advises the English majors or minors who plan to teach in secondary schools; he teaches English courses and courses in methods and supervises student teaching or internship. His qualifications must be fully acceptable to education and English.

Because an instructor on a joint appointment usually teaches courses in both departments in quite different fields, he must keep up his scholarship and publish in both areas. Second, he may have more committee assignments. Third, a joint appointee must satisfy the demands of both departments for promotion. If he is responsible for supervising student teachers, this time-consuming activity, seldom recognized fully as a part of his load, cuts into the time he could spend on research and publishing, often an indispensable condition for advancement in an English department. Fourth, he may in both departments be the "lonely man." Finally, he may be trying to serve two "masters" with different ideas on the education of English teachers.

The seriousness of these disadvantages depends obviously upon the talents and personality of the individual and on the personnel and attitudes of the staff in both departments. But other complexities seem inherent in a teaching position which stands astride a gap between two college departments, a void which in

some institutions, unfortunately and unnecessarily, must be the widest in the groves of Academe.

The position should have status above that of "instructor." If it does not, no reasonably ambitious and capable person will seek or long try to meet its heavy demands, and its destiny may fall to those least able to produce superior teachers of English. As Warner G. Rice points out in a later chapter in this volume, few graduate students consider preparing for these joint appointments or for working with teacher candidates in either the Department of English or the Department of Education. As a result, the demand for persons qualified to prepare future teachers of English far exceeds the supply.

The person holding a joint appointment should be considered a full-fledged member of both departments. He should have a manageable schedule consisting of choices from among the following possibilities. In the Department of English he should teach a course related to his graduate study in English and also a section of freshman English. The more advanced course may be in literature, advanced composition, or modern English grammar. He may also wish to teach a course in literature for adolescents. Because he works with future high school teachers, serves as a consultant on curriculum and teaching, and participates in conferences with experienced teachers of English, he would benefit from teaching freshman English to recent graduates of high schools. Thus he could advise high school teachers from firsthand experience. He should also advise students planning to teach secondary school English.

In the Department of Education he should teach methods courses in secondary school English, supervise these students during their practice teaching or internship, and confer with supervising teachers in guiding beginning teachers. He can promote understanding among English teachers and between English teachers and the college department by planning workshops and conferences in which teachers from the elementary and secondary schools and colleges and universities can work together on common problems. In short, as a link, he may contribute to the academic department's understanding of what is involved in the

preparation of teachers for the secondary schools; he can keep his colleagues in the Department of Education informed on developments in the academic department; he can foster joint planning of the program for English teachers; and, in general, he can contribute to an understanding among departments in preparing teachers.

STANDARDS OF PREPARATION

Chapter 4 (on pp. 181-182) presents the NCTE's Standard of Preparation to Teach English. Part II of that outline refers to the English teacher's abilities in the science and art of teaching.⁷ To critics who challenge the value of any professional preparation for the future teacher of English, one might ask: "Where in the programs of general education and of academic subjects will the prospective teacher acquire the knowledge and develop the skills specified in that Standard?" The basic question is not whether professional education is needed but rather how to find out what kind is actually needed and then how this kind should be provided.

KINDS OF PROGRAMS

In the sample four-, five-, and six-year programs presented in Chapter 4, patterns of professional education vary considerably. In the more conventional patterns, such as those at the University of Kansas, the University of Wisconsin, and Stanford's regular five-year program, the content of professional education and the skills of teaching are developed in a sequence of conventional courses such as introduction to education, educational psychology, educational sociology, principles of secondary education, history of education, philosophy of education, methods of teaching secondary school English, directed observations, and student teaching. The organization is quite different, however, in newer

⁷ NCTE, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1961), pp. 41-42.

five- and six-year programs featuring the internship.⁸ Seminars are designed to synthesize the relevant aspects of psychology, sociology, history, philosophy, principles of secondary education, and special methods of teaching. Sometimes these seminars are taught by a team of instructors representing the foundational fields of professional education and related academic departments.

Results on the relative effectiveness of these different plans are not yet available. Since no one pattern of professional education has yet proved worthy of being patented as the infallible producer of superior teachers, institutions must continue to try to improve programs by evaluating courses, redesigning some, abolishing others, and rearranging the entire program if necessary.

REMINDERS

Because of such charges listed on pages 315-316, some reminders regarding the place of professional education in the search for the superior teacher seem to be in order:

1. Ryans reports the positive correlation between good academic performance in college and effectiveness of teachers.⁹ The refrain again is the necessity for all college instructors to recruit superior students for programs of teacher education.
2. Teacher education faculties should recognize individual differences among college students. If the profession succeeds in recruiting larger numbers of academically talented students, then, as pointed out in the first charge, it must provide for the differences among these students. If valid proficiency examinations could be created for the fields of knowledge covered in the background courses in professional education, as the University of Chicago has done in general education, some

⁸ John D. Herzog, ed., *Preparing College Graduates to Teach in Schools: A Directory of Fifth-Year Programs* (Washington: ACE, 1960). In addition to those in the states requiring all beginning teachers to complete five years of college, almost 100 colleges and universities in 28 other states offer internship programs.

⁹ David G. Ryans, *Characteristics of Teachers* (Washington: ACE, 1960), p. 394.

of the charges against these courses might at least be minimized if not eliminated.

3. Whether an appropriate course is given in one department or another is not so important as the qualifications and competence of the instructor and the quality of the course.
4. The program should be organized to prepare teachers for the schools of the future as well as those of today.
5. The ninth charge is that programs are weak in preparing the future teacher to make valid decisions inherent in the act of teaching. The conferees state:

While the assumption is often made that one of the easiest tasks facing the teacher is the determination of content, this is likely to prove the most baffling. Many of the real shortcomings in teaching grow out of the selection of content, including activities and experiences, which bear little if any relation to the realization of the goals of either teacher or learner. The increased efforts at differentiation in schools today have greatly magnified the enormity and extent of these crimes. The unimaginative plodding of countless students through textbook pages in search of bodies of facts to be learned testifies to the inability of many teachers to organize really significant instruction related to the tasks appropriate for the school.¹⁰

This basic problem is related also to the importance Bruner gives to structure in the whole process of learning.¹¹

SUMMARY

This section began with listing some charges discussed at the conference reappraising professional education. Nevertheless, the conferees reaffirmed the contribution professional education can make to the future teacher's competence. The following paragraphs taken from the report of the conference effectively state the case for professional education:

¹⁰ Elmer R. Smith, ed., *op. cit.*, p. 68.

¹¹ Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960), pp. 17-32.

Unless the prospective teacher has training which aids him to re-study his major in the light of the demands of the discipline and those of the school; unless he learns to deal systematically with the problems of content and method in organizing instruction; unless he is made aware of the conditions of learning which are likely to be operative in his school and in his classroom—there is always the possibility of his becoming, like Gradgrind in Dickens, “a kind of cannon loaded to the muzzle with facts and prepared to blow the boys and girls clean out of the regions of childhood at one discharge.”

The prospective teacher needs to see the setting of objectives as the basic framework of his instruction. Skill in setting instructional objectives will grow out of his understanding of the aims of education, of the demands of his subject, of the precise requirements of the appropriate task, of the requirements of the learner and of the essential conditions of learning. The prospective teacher's liberal education and specialized knowledge of his major provide helpful but insufficient preparation to develop this skill.¹²

PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND

A broad education in the liberal arts and specialized study in language and literature are not in themselves sufficient to prepare college students to teach English in the secondary schools. To these must be added practical experience in the classroom, acquaintance with methods of teaching, and certain understandings about learning, human growth and development, and the role of the school in society. Preparation in methods and in supervised teaching are discussed later in this chapter; this section is concerned with preparation in what are often referred to as the foundation courses in education.

The future teacher of English will not only direct the learning of his students, but he will also sponsor co-curricular activities, meet parents in the community, and be assigned out-of-class responsibilities of many kinds. These roles are not of equal importance, and some require little preparation. As a consequence, courses in professional education, limited in number, should present the essential understandings on which work in meth-

¹² Elmer R. Smith, ed., *op. cit.*, pp. 57-58.

odology and student teaching will be based. When so delimited, the foundation courses can be among the more valuable offered as part of the credential program. Like much general education, the study of educational psychology and of the social backgrounds of education is often offered during the junior or senior year, although a few programs defer all professional courses until the graduate year. For certain selected students in internship programs the essential content may be introduced through seminars accompanying internship teaching rather than through specific courses completed in advance of teaching. Whatever the approach, students seem best to grasp the content of professional education courses when their study is supported by considerable field experiences—whether by observing, by participating as a teacher's aide, or by actual student or internship teaching.

PSYCHOLOGICAL BACKGROUNDS

In studying educational psychology, the beginning teacher of English will acquire essential understandings about human growth and development, about the nature of learning, and about measurement and evaluation. What he actually needs is not so much a comprehensive understanding of the total field, but rather a working knowledge of educational psychology that will assist him in his teaching. Along with prospective teachers of all subjects, he must, of course, learn the technical meaning of key concepts used in education, such as intelligence quotient, standard deviation, normal curve, sequence of growth, and adolescents' characteristics and needs. Whenever such understandings can be closely related to the teaching of English, the instruction in educational psychology will seem especially valuable. This chapter is not intended to present a complete outline for a course in educational psychology; rather it will indicate those aspects of greatest importance to the prospective teacher of high school English.

GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Teachers of English need to understand that the characteristics of human growth and development may affect not only teaching

methods, but also the selection and grade placement of content. To be sure, other forces also affect decisions about method and content: the dominant philosophy of education in one school or a district, for example. Nevertheless, many textbooks and printed curricula are strongly influenced by data on physical, intellectual, and emotional development. Although such knowledge will seldom be the single determiner, an understanding of these characteristics will help teachers to select appropriate content and methods.

Beyond understanding the relationship of human growth and the development of curriculum, teachers of English will find an understanding of principles such as the following to be especially valuable:

a. *Although Studies of Children Reveal Certain Common Characteristics for Different Age-Groups, They Do Not Permit Rigid Characterization of Children in Any One Grade.* In any class or grade, the teacher must expect individual differences in growth, development, and learning. Summaries of the characteristics of learners in any age group offer only a general guide. Regardless of the grouping policies of any school, the teacher should expect a wide range of differences in the classroom.

b. *If Education Is Effective, Variation in Achievement Will Increase as Pupils Grow Older.* Because pupils differ in the rate of learning, those who learn rapidly will soon outdistance their classmates if given an opportunity to develop their unique capacities. The range of abilities in the secondary school should be far greater than in the elementary. Teachers must use appropriate content and methods to adapt to and extend these differences.

c. *For the Purpose of Curriculum Planning in English, the Social and Psychological Aspects of Growth Are Usually More Important Than the Physical.* The development of linguistic proficiency is inseparably related to social and psychological factors. Although English teachers need some general understanding of physical development, the other aspects of growth should receive greater emphasis.

d. *Adult Levels of Achievement Need To Be Considered When*

a Teacher Is Appraising the Development of Adolescents. Some knowledge about adults' proficiency in all phases of language skill will give the teacher perspective in assessing the work of his students. Unless modified by a knowledge of adult achievement, a teacher's expectations of his pupils' achievement can be unrealistic. For example, the awareness that reading ability depends to a considerable extent on intelligence and that almost a half of the adult population reads at the ninth grade level or below will help the beginning teacher understand why some of his students will never achieve as high a degree of proficiency as he would like.

e. *Certain Fundamental Understandings Concerning the Nature of Language Development and Its Role in the Educative Process Must Be Understood by All Teachers of English.* Prospective teachers seem to derive the greatest value from studies in psychology when the generalizations drawn from research are directly related to teaching in a subject field. Representative of the basic generalizations about language which need to be stressed for prospective teachers of English are the following:

1. A pupil's experience and adeptness in language determine to a large measure not only how well he learns but also the extent to which his learning functions in his total behavior.¹³ The close relationship of language to the personal and social characteristics of individuals needs to be understood. For example, the work of psychologists with projective techniques, such as the use of thematic apperception tests, suggests that the amount of detail a person uses in his writing bears some relationship to the spontaneity and flexibility of his language.

2. The language development of pupils is closely related to social class factors in our society. In the middle and upper social classes, the environments in which children have opportunities to learn language are likely to promote greater development of vocabulary and sentence patterns than are the environments of children from lower social classes.¹⁴ Moreover, middle-class parents

¹³ Karl C. Garrison, "Learning the Fundamental School Subjects," Ch. XIV, *Educational Psychology*, Third Edition, edited by Charles E. Skinner (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951), p. 446.

¹⁴ Allison Davis, *Social-Class Influences upon Learning* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1949).

control children's language to a greater degree than do the parents in lower classes. Thus the usage patterns taught in the schools are in accord with the usage expected by middle-class parents but vary considerably from the customary usage of the lower classes.¹⁵

3. Girls tend to be superior to boys in tests emphasizing language and verbal ability. This superiority is persistently maintained throughout the years of formal schooling.¹⁶ A corollary of this sex difference appears to be that almost twice as many boys as girls have difficulties in learning to read.¹⁷

Other understandings concerning language development must also be introduced, including the close relationship of such development to the experiential background of the learner. In addition, beginning teachers will need to study the development of pupils' skills in writing, reading, and speaking; the patterns of their reading interests; and other aspects of human growth directly related to the teaching of English.

LEARNING

An effective classroom teacher understands the fundamental nature of the learning process. The teacher of English shares with his colleagues in other subjects a need for understanding the nature of mental, emotional, and physical behavior. He must learn about the processes of thinking, the formation of concepts, the nature of critical thinking, and the act of problem solving. He must study the development of skills, with special reference to the skills of language; and the development of appreciations and values, with special concern for aesthetic and ethical values. To some degree, of course, this instruction in methods of teaching English will provide him with some of this desired learning; his

¹⁵ Lou LaBrant, *We Teach English* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1951).

¹⁶ James Sawrey and Charles W. Telford, *Educational Psychology* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958). See also data on verbal phase of scholastic aptitude test scores reported in *Freshman at Stanford, 1957* (Stanford, California).

¹⁷ Donald D. Durrell, "Reading Disability in the Intermediate Grades" (Unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1930).

directed observations and his supervised teaching will permit him to observe actual learning underway.

An understanding of the process of learning will prove essential. Thus the student must consider the problem of readiness, both as a phase of learning and as an aspect of human development. He will need further to consider the importance of the structure of his subject and his daily lessons, the nature of motivation, the problem of transfer of learning, and the impact of learning of various social, cultural, and emotional influences, including the classroom influences over which the teacher of English has some control. The teacher will need to learn what is known about meaningful drill in language skills. In addition, the unique nature of his subject requires that the teacher of English be introduced to what is known about such specialized problems as the following:

1. the psychology of reading responses¹⁸
2. the relationship of learning in one phase of language, e.g., discussion skill, to the learning of other phases, e.g., writing skill
3. the effect on learning language skills of such factors as anxiety, security, and peer status
4. the psychology of group behavior and the relationship between communication skills and the dynamics of group behavior, especially of small groups.

Many of these topics and others that are similar are perhaps best introduced in the course on methods of teaching English or in discussions of observations and teaching.

MEASUREMENT AND EVALUATION

Formal and informal procedures for measuring and evaluating pupils' abilities and progress need careful study: statistical methods for comparing the individual to the group, the use of cumulative records, the interpretation of tests, and the collection of informative data in the classroom. Teachers need to learn how

¹⁸ For a summary and bibliography, see David H. Russell's "Some Research on the Impact of Reading," *English Journal*, XLVII (October, 1958), 398-413.

evaluation can affect teaching and learning and why so many of the legitimate aims of the teaching of English cannot be easily measured.

The future English teacher also requires certain specialized instruction. He needs, for example, to discover formal and informal methods of diagnosing language skills; to understand the uses and limitations of available achievement tests in English; and the limitations and merits of essay examinations. Either in his work on measurement or in subsequent study of methodology, he must learn how to evaluate composition and how to assess literary appreciation. In the course of this study, he should become familiar with the results of related research.

The discussion in this section indicates those aspects of educational psychology having special importance for the future teacher of English. Whether such preparation is best presented in a formal course or in some other manner will depend upon the organization of a particular program of teacher education.

PHILOSOPHY OF PUBLIC SECONDARY EDUCATION

For a true sense of his profession, a teacher of English must understand the intellectual and social importance of his work: his special place in the American school system and the philosophy underlying the content and procedures of public secondary education. He then understands not only the prevailing principles and practices but their alternatives as well. He uses opportunities to develop and defend his own point of view.

Most preservice programs probably cannot include detailed treatment of the historical development and organization of secondary education in the United States. But prospective teachers do need some understanding of such aspects as these: the development of public education in the United States, some reasons for the differences between systems of education in Europe and the United States, the professional roles and legal responsibilities of public school teachers, conventional organizations of our public secondary schools, the place of the comprehensive high school in democratic society, the impact of college preparatory programs, recent developments in the use of flexible

scheduling and team teaching, experimentation in public high schools organized without conventional grades, and the stimulating developments in the content and methods of teaching in the foreign languages, sciences, mathematics, and other school subjects.

A minimal program should stress, however, the school curriculum and its relation to the surrounding community and to national developments in the organization of schools and in school subjects. An overview presented in a professional course should be supplemented by observations in public schools prior to and during student teaching or internship so that the beginning teacher will be familiar with some of the problems, practices, and developments. The following four concepts should be emphasized:

1. *Education in a Democratic Social Order Is Characterized by Great Social Diversity.* Future teachers must understand the relationship between the nature of the American social order and the provisions that society makes for education. They need to know the special contributions of English and the humanities to the goals of education in a democracy. Concern about the plurality of ethical values in a heterogeneous society can lead students to identify the sources of their own values and the possible impact upon pupils who represent a wide range of socioeconomic and religious groups. Beginning teachers are sometimes surprised to discover that most teachers are drawn from the American middle class and that the American public schools tend to perpetuate acceptable middle-class values. Those English teachers with students who live by standards very different from the teachers' will discover that an intellectual recognition of the potential conflict in values and goals is exceedingly important.

2. *Present Curricula Vary Widely, Reflecting the Diverse Values of Communities.* Prospective teachers should be aware of the factors and forces influencing curricular design. They must understand how the place of English in a school program depends in part upon other phases of school and community life, such as co-curricular activities, library facilities, special pro-

grams for able and handicapped youngsters, and the degree of emphasis placed on English in courses offered in other departments.

3. *Current Issues in Education Reflect Varying Attitudes and Concerns.* An awareness of current controversies and the underlying philosophical assumptions is important to any teacher who may be called upon to examine the purposes of his instruction. Probably the future teacher will gain by studying briefly some of the organizations and agencies which seem to influence educational policy. Certainly he will need to know current issues related to the teaching of the humanities and the skills and arts of language.

4. *The Teacher of English Is Required to Assume Many Professional Roles.* The prospective teacher must be prepared for the many obligations and responsibilities which he will be asked to fulfill. He must sense the close relationship of school and community and his role as an interpreter of education in the community; he will need to learn about the work of professional and learned societies and about the reasons behind the administrative practices affecting his teaching. Many such understandings are best developed through student teaching and other field experiences, if adequate provision can be made to see that the problems are considered.

These, then, are some of the important elements to be included in the professional preparation of future teachers. Some of them should also be of concern to future members of school boards, editors, publishers, and other citizens. Because one out of every four persons in the United States is currently in school and many people are concerned with the quality of public education, some study of educational philosophy, psychology, and sociology could contribute substantially to the general education of all thoughtful citizens. For the future teacher of English, however, such study is fundamental, whether it is presented in separately organized foundation courses or as a part of a unified sequence of seminars and extensive observations and practice in the public schools.

THE COURSE IN METHODS

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Chapter 4 reports recommendations made by experienced teachers and school administrators for improving the preparation of English teachers. Consistently, respondents gave strong support for practical courses in methods of teaching secondary school English. Some critics of the public schools and of what they suppose to be the preparation of teachers think that many difficulties can be attributed to prospective teachers' being trained in how to teach but not in what to teach.¹⁹ As shown in Chapter 4, only about 17 per cent of the college program of a prospective secondary school teacher is allotted to professional education. Some of these courses are as much general education as professional education. Of this 17 per cent, about 3 to 6 semester credits are devoted to courses in methods of teaching the major and minor. Consequently, only about 5 or 6 per cent of a candidate's four or five years of college education is assigned to a course in methods, a course that beginning and experienced teachers and administrators consider to be necessary. As professional methods courses are essential in the training of doctors, lawyers, and business executives, so are they essential in the preparation of teachers. No apology need be made for the number of units allocated to courses in methods.

The more essential a course is, however, the more important that it be well conceived and well taught. A methods course is not "just a bag of tricks," as some of its derogators have claimed—at least it is not if it is soundly conceived. Many specific techniques it should and must provide, just as courses in a school of medicine give instruction in interpreting X-rays and in prescribing from an ever growing pharmacopeia. But the methods course must not be restricted to specific techniques. It should provide the teacher-to-be with an understanding of what will be ex-

¹⁹ For examples of opinions expressed by laymen and college faculty and administrators, see Joseph Mersand, *Attitudes Toward English Teaching* (Philadelphia: Chilton Company, 1961).

pected of him in his chosen profession, of what resources are at his disposal, and especially of how he can draw upon his own acquired knowledge and skills as he goes about his task of systematically inculcating knowledge and skills upon younger generations. It serves, then, to relate earlier courses in subject matter and educational theory to practical applications in secondary school classes.

Some colleges find it impossible, because of small enrollments, to offer methods courses in separate subjects. Of 281 colleges preparing teachers and responding to an NCTE questionnaire, one-fourth said that no English methods course is offered. They give instead a general methods course. "Although the instructor in such a course may sometimes give individual assignments in the student's special field, little detailed attention can be directed to the manifold and important problems of teaching literature, grammar, and composition."²⁰ Obviously, a person who teaches a general methods course cannot be equally conversant with every subject his students may be preparing to teach. Hence, some of his students are not likely to get much of specific value from the course. Ideally, a separate methods course is desirable for each subject in which a college prepares teachers. As a compromise in a small college, similar subjects may be combined: e.g., English with speech, journalism, library science. When even this compromise is impossible, and a catch-all methods course is unavoidable, the conscientious instructor may enlist the aid of his colleagues in various departments in working out individual and small-group assignments. In addition, he may ask able high school teachers to come in to discuss with the whole class and with interested small groups the teaching of their respective subjects. Budgetary provisions should be made for paying such needed consultants.

In some institutions, two or even more courses are devoted to English methods. Since the teaching of reading is especially complex, it probably should be taught as a separate course. But there seems little justification for offering a course in teaching composition, another in teaching linguistics or grammar, another in the teaching of speech in the English classroom, another in

²⁰ *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, p. 71.

teaching literature, and another in using audiovisual aids in English. Future teachers who take several such courses are not only forced to omit useful work in subject matter or in general education but are also likely to get the impression that English consists of compartmentalized snippets rather than a fairly unified whole. Except in highly unusual circumstances, one four- or five-semester-credit methods course (in addition to the teaching of reading) should be adequate.

Who should teach the methods courses? Arrangements for assigning instructors to teach methods courses and supervise student teachers were described earlier in this chapter. Whether one person or two carry out these responsibilities and whether these instructors are members of the School of Education, the Department of English, or have joint appointments, their qualifications should be similar to these:

1. The instructor must have had enough experience in teaching secondary school English, preferably on more than one level and in more than one type of school, to demonstrate that he has qualified for the teaching credential and can do the kind of English teaching he is presuming to teach his students to do.
2. He should have extensive knowledge of his subject matter and should keep up with significant new scholarly developments in the field of English.²¹

²¹ Many such instructors possess either a doctorate in English or a doctorate in education with considerable graduate work in English. Graduate faculties in university departments of English have been strangely reluctant to offer a doctorate with a minor in education and considerable work in language and composition as well as in literature. Prerequisite to admission would be experience teaching secondary school English. Such a degree could admirably equip its holder not only to teach methods courses and supervise student teachers but also to fill the increasing number of openings in English supervisory positions in county school systems, city school systems, and state departments of education. When such a program was urged upon one large department, the graduate faculty vetoed it on the ground that it would "cheapen" the doctorate. On the contrary, it would do much to strengthen English teaching on all levels and would eventually result in better qualified candidates for graduate work in English. In Chapter 12 of this volume, Warner G. Rice, Chairman, Department of English Language and Literature, University of Michigan, points out the difficulty of interesting enough candidates for the Ph.D. in English to prepare for these important positions in which they would help prepare future teachers of secondary school English.

3. He should have a continuing interest in secondary education, make frequent visits to secondary school classes, attend regional, state, and national meetings of public school teachers and administrators, keep up-to-date by reading other professional journals and books, and keep informed on changing patterns and needs in secondary education.
4. He should cooperate closely with the supervisor of student teachers, if the methods teacher himself is not the supervisor. Otherwise, students will be confused and unable to apply in their student teaching what they have learned in the methods course. Moreover, supervising teachers in the schools will also be uncertain about what is expected of them. For these reasons then the instructor in methods should consider the placement of student teachers in the field as one of his most significant responsibilities.

CONTENT OF THE COURSE

The precise content of the course in methods obviously depends in part upon what is taught in other courses. For example, in an English course the prospective teacher may have already learned how to evaluate student writing. If other education courses have introduced the uses of audiovisual equipment, the methods course may provide no more than a bibliographical introduction to the vast A-V resources available for the English classroom. If a course in the English language has considered the problems inherent in introducing modern grammars into traditional schools, repetition is unnecessary. The methods course is certain to be crowded even without unwarranted duplication.

Whatever the timing and arrangement of the methods course in the program of teacher education, the instructor should make it as practical as possible by tying it to directed observations in English classes in public secondary schools and by using the facilities of closed circuit television, kinescopes, video tapes, and tape recordings to illustrate methods of teaching English.

The National Interest and the Teaching of English, after dis-

cusssing what the teacher should know about language and literature, lists six "abilities and knowledge which belong to the science and the art of teaching language and literature."²² Such abilities and knowledge will result not solely from the methods course, but also from the cumulative studies in English and education over a period of many years. To do its part in the development of the necessary abilities, the course in methods should include the types of content described under the three categories below, except where other courses have already treated a given item adequately. "Inclusion" does not necessarily imply, however, large amounts of class time for discussion of every item; much of the content can be learned quickly from reading in methods textbooks and other resources. Perhaps it should be noted also that the individual items are not of equal importance; some need to be touched upon only briefly, but others require considerable attention. In addition, the teacher of methods must realize that he is preparing his students both for a few weeks of practice teaching or a few months of internship and for many years of teaching thereafter. Some of the items listed are less pertinent for student teachers than for full-time teachers. In the "sandwich" methods course in which some of the instruction precedes and some follows student teaching, the instructor may select for the first segment of the course those items most likely to be needed in student teaching and reserve for the final segment consideration of long-range needs.

CONTENT

1. *Reviewing and Extending Pertinent Subject Matter.* A good methods course impels a future teacher to learn his subject better and to learn more of it. It helps him, for example, to apply to the reading of new material what he has learned about reading in his literature courses; to select from what he knows about literary techniques and terms those which can and should be taught in secondary schools; to choose those items in linguistic history and linguistic science especially suited to the secondary schools; and to think about teaching writing with an awareness

²² See page 182.

of students' possible difficulties in content, logic, organization, sentence structure, diction, and mechanics.

2. *Teaching Reading.* Both developmental and remedial reading should be included, on the premise that everyone, even the expert reader, can learn to read better. Because of the importance, complexity, and scope of the subject, a separate course in the teaching of reading should be available.

3. *Teaching Literature.* The methods course should aid in the discovery of answers to such questions as these: What are the purposes of teaching literature in public secondary schools? How may appropriate literature be selected? How may literature for adolescents and the classics be used most effectively? How may the study of literature be motivated? How can the teacher foster in his pupils the habit of turning to literature for pleasure, insight, and enrichment? What terminology should be taught? How much attention should be devoted to authors' techniques? What proportion of the literature should be read in common and what proportion independently? How may class discussion of literature be carried on most profitably? How can teaching students to read a particular novel, poem, or play help them learn how to read *any* novel, poem, or play? How can the teaching of literature be also related to the teaching of communication skills? How may reading good literature be made a lifetime habit? How may students' ability to comprehend and appreciate literature be increased and evaluated?

4. *Teaching Literature Written for Adolescents.* Where in four or five years of college English does the future teacher of English become familiar with the rapidly expanding world of books appealing to a wide range of junior and senior high school boys and girls? The teacher wants to help all pupils read the best literature appropriate for them and to improve their standards of literary taste. He also wants to help pupils acquire a lifetime habit of reading books. But the teacher has to begin at whatever levels of literary tastes and interests he finds among his pupils. For many adolescents this level may be far below that sanctioned in college English courses. Follow-up studies of experienced teachers of English reveal the need for a required course in literature that appeals to students not yet ready for or capable of

reading adult literature. However, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* reports that only 15.9 per cent of the 454 institutions participating in the NCTE survey require those preparing for English teaching to complete such a course. In some colleges the course is taught in the English department; in others, in the education department. But even if candidates are required to take such a course, the methods course should also help them learn not only how to select the best literature and teach it but also how to select appropriate literature and use it effectively. Candidates should locate common sources of information about adolescent literature, including the reviews appearing periodically in the *English Journal*. The field of adolescent literature is too important to be scorned by college departments of English or neglected by departments of education.

5. *Teaching Language*. Today's teachers go into English departments in secondary schools adhering to widely different beliefs and practices regarding the nature and standards of the English language and the teaching of it. Nevertheless, the future teacher needs the kind of courses in the systematic study of modern English grammar described in the preceding chapter. The methods course should help him identify realistic purposes of teaching the English language in secondary schools and help him learn to teach inductively the nature of language as a phenomenon; that language is a function of culture, time, age, sex, and occasion; the appropriate aspects of linguistic history and modern English grammar; realistic standards of usage; and semantics. He should also learn how to relate his teaching of language to the rest of his teaching. He should recognize his colleagues' notions about language and use good sense in his application of up-to-date preparation to teach the English language.

6. *Teaching Writing*. *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* reveals that current methods courses devote, on the average, more than twice as much time to the teaching of literature as to the teaching of language and composition combined.²³ This disproportionate emphasis is unfortunate in the light of

²³ NCTE, *op. cit.*, p. 85.

the poor writing of many high school graduates. Better balance is urgently needed. The methods course should reinforce the prospective teacher's knowledge of and skill in writing by giving him additional practice in writing exposition, by helping him recognize the relationship of written language to spoken language, by reviewing the essentials of critical thinking and problem solving and their inseparable relationship to writing, and by reviewing the essentials of English spelling, capitalization, and punctuation, especially the relationship of punctuation to intonation. It should help him identify the purposes of teaching writing in public secondary schools, recognize the importance of his setting suitable assignments, learn some methods of teaching exposition and other forms of writing, learn how to relate the teaching of writing to the rest of the English program, and know the research on the relationship between the teaching of writing and grammar.

He should recognize the difference between evaluation and mere proofreading. To help him achieve this goal, the course should provide him with many opportunities to analyze examples of students' writing, to diagnose strengths and weaknesses, to become aware of reasonable levels of expectation for each grade, to suggest appropriate remedial measures, and to realize the importance of commending writing that shows clear thinking, rich content, and logical organization.

7. *Teaching Speech.* The high school teacher should understand the integral relationship of speech to the physical and social development of adolescents. Some institutions offer a separate methods course in speech, sometimes in the speech department. The methods course in English, however, should include speech in and out of the English class, e.g., class discussion, group discussion, panel presentation, oral reports, oral interpretation of literature, dramatization of literary selections, and conducting and participating in committee and club meetings.

8. *Teaching Listening.* In the methods course the prospective teacher should learn the purposes of teaching listening in relation to other language skills, some criteria of effective

listening, the coordinated improvement of speech and listening, its relationship to students' use of television and radio, and the evaluation of the effect of speech upon the listener in communication.

9. *Teaching Critical Thinking and Problem Solving.* Although all teachers share the responsibility for improving students' ability to think, the teacher of English has special opportunities to do so in his teaching of writing, reading, literature, speaking, and listening. One purpose of teaching these aspects of English is to help pupils learn to think effectively. For example, the teacher must first look upon students' writing as evidence of their thought processes and values. He should assign composition topics and require students to solve problems, evaluate evidence, analyze propaganda, and test analogies and conclusions.²⁴ The teaching of composition may aid students to use techniques of problem solving if the teacher consciously tries to make it do so, if he suggests more provocative and significant topics than "My Most Embarrassing Moment," if he helps his students examine their own reasoning, and if in evaluating their compositions he emphasizes the importance of logic, evidence, generalizations, and distinguishing between fact and opinion. He can also apply the details of the outline on critical thinking to the reading of a literary selection and to speaking and listening. The methods course should stress research evidence that not only can critical thinking be taught but also that for many students it must be taught directly.

10. *Teaching the Mass Media.* The impact of newspapers, magazines, paperbound books, motion pictures, radio, and television upon modern life is so great that teachers of all subjects should help students become discriminating readers, listeners, and viewers. The methods course should demonstrate that criteria for measuring quality in the mass media are similar to those for measuring quality in literature. An adept English teacher uses

²⁴ See Alfred H. Grommon, "Coordinating Composition in High School and College," *English Journal*, XLVIII (March, 1959), 123-131. This article includes a detailed outline of critical thinking which is a revised version of one prepared earlier by Paul Diederich of the Educational Testing Service and A. H. Grommon.

the mass media wisely instead of considering them pervasive threats to what he is trying to achieve.²⁵

ORGANIZATION OF ENGLISH COURSES

1. *Developing Units.* Resource and teaching units include not only materials, procedures, and methods of evaluation but also well-defined objectives and clear relationships to characteristics and needs of adolescents. The prospective teacher should learn how to prepare appropriate units and how, when profitable, to plan units with his students.

2. *Lesson Plans.* Beginning teachers in particular need to know how to prepare well-developed lesson plans to aid them in each week and each day of teaching. Beginners need to learn how to plan for long-term work as well as that for one day. Experienced teachers use lesson plans, too, though possibly with less detailed development.

3. *Providing for Individual Differences.* The prospective teacher needs to be aware of adolescents' characteristics, needs, and diversity. He needs to become familiar with ways to make the study of English rewarding to all the children of all the people. The methods course should consider the advantages and disadvantages of heterogeneous and homogeneous grouping, the specific techniques for aiding slow students, and, for able students, the values and drawbacks of enriched programs and acceleration, including Advanced Placement Programs. Such study could follow the work in human growth and development.

4. *Ways to Conduct Class.* The prospective teacher should realize that class periods need not be merely lectures or question-answer recitations. The methods course should present alternatives: conducting genuine discussions rather than recitations or bull-sessions; using panel discussions, symposiums, seminar sessions for advanced students; independent study; programmed

²⁵ See William D. Boutwell, *Using Mass Media in the Schools* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1962), available through NCTE; Neil Postman, *Television and the Teaching of English* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961), also available through NCTE; *Studies in the Mass Media*, a journal of the NCTE; Paul Witty, "Television and the High School Student," *Education*, LXXIX (1951), 242-251.

teaching and learning; and a class divided into small groups, with each group concentrating on specialized problems. If time permits, the future teacher can sometimes demonstrate in the methods class lessons and procedures appropriate for a secondary school English class. A variety of subject matter and teaching methods may thus be dramatized.

5. *Specific Techniques.* Basic divisions of the methods course can give attention to special techniques. Study of language problems, for example, may demonstrate ways of teaching the basic sentence patterns or ways of combatting difficulties with pronoun case and reference. Methods students can exchange and evaluate each other's essays and then have conferences to experience what their students will be going through when their writing is evaluated, discussed, and exhibited.

6. *Evaluation.* Other parts of the methods course will incorporate evaluation, of course. But the instructor should stress the unique problems of evaluation in the English class. Many of the most important purposes for teaching English do not lend themselves to conventional pencil-and-paper evaluation. The beginning teacher should know what clues to look for in evaluating objectives, attitudes, and appreciations. He should study the research on the effectiveness of essay examinations, and he should remember to relate his evaluations to specific objectives for the course, unit, or lesson.

7. *Audiovisual Aids.* Presumably, the prospective teacher has acquired elsewhere the mechanical skills of using movie, slide, filmstrip, and overhead projectors, tape recorders, teaching machines, and other devices. In a brief time the methods course can adopt the use of machines to work in English. It should reveal the wealth of literary recordings, literary maps, films, filmstrips, educational television programs, kinescopes, and individual learning programs, now becoming increasingly available. It should emphasize that such devices are only aids to supplement and enrich, not to detract or distract from, the basic materials of the English course. The methods instructor should utilize the audiovisual aids in his own teaching.

8. *Community Resources.* Also briefly, the methods course may suggest that teachers use available community resources such as

libraries, museums, theaters, printing offices, radio and television studies, and selected business and industrial establishments. Especially informative for both the teacher and his students would be a study of ways in which language functions in the business, industrial, and professional life of the community

9. *The English Curriculum and Curriculum Planning.* The prospective teacher should know the purposes of teaching English to all students and how these purposes are related to those of the entire educational program. Aware of the conflicting philosophies of education, he should clarify his own. Required reading on unsolved problems should include such documents as *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, *The Basic Issues in the Teaching of English*, and *A Check List for Evaluating the English Program in the Junior and Senior High School*.²⁶

He should know how six-year curricula for English are developed and see the importance of structure for determining and organizing content. He should recognize that a curriculum must reflect community needs, the national developments in the subject, and curricula in elementary schools and colleges. He should become well acquainted with outstanding English curriculum guides throughout the country and note important contributions made by research.²⁷

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIP

1. *The Teacher's Professional Bibliography, Library, and Files.* The instructor of the methods course should prepare a comprehensive up-to-date syllabus with an adequate sampling of the continuously expanding literature on the teaching of English. It should be not only a guide for the student teacher or intern, but also the foundation of the student's learning the literature in his field to which he continuously adds as he keeps current with the latest references. Periodically, the instructor

²⁶ All available from the NCTE.

²⁷ For some examples, see Arno Jewett, *English Language Arts in American High Schools* (Washington: U. S. Dept. of HEW, Bulletin 1958, No. 13) and NCTE, *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956).

should discuss the books and materials that constitute the heart of an English teacher's library. In addition, he should urge the future teacher to start at once his own file of pictures, articles, pamphlets, clippings from newspapers and magazines, tests, students' themes, and other materials that may prove useful in his English classes.

2. *Extraclassroom Responsibilities.* Although the instructor of a methods course cannot possibly give detailed instruction in directing plays and in advising staffs of school publications, he should include some description of the extraclassroom duties often assigned to English teachers and provide a bibliography for independent use as needed.

3. *Schools of the Future.* Though changes in education generally occur slowly, greater ferment and more numerous pleas for change are occurring today than ever before. The instructor should therefore explain and evaluate such possible waves of the future as listed at the beginning of Chapter 5.

4. *Membership in a Profession.* The instructor of a methods course should help the future teacher become a director of his pupils' learning and a transmitter of the culture. But he can also acquaint the candidate with his roles as a member of a school staff and of a profession by clarifying the significance of his relations with students and parents, with other teachers, with the chairman of his department, with his administrators, and with the community. The instructor should also forewarn the student against the tendency in about five years to revert to perfunctory planning and teaching based largely upon whatever textbooks he adopts. He should impress upon him a sense of responsibility for continuing self-education, for participating in appropriate inservice programs provided by the school district, and for contributing to the profession by conducting his own research and writing for professional journals and books. As a safeguard against stagnation and regression, the instructor should urge the young teacher to take full advantage of the services available from, and to join, local and state organizations of teachers of English, the National Council of Teachers of English, and the state and national education associations.

A concluding point may be so obvious that it needs no more

than a mention: a course in methods should itself be well taught and should illustrate the principles it attempts to inculcate and the procedures and materials it recommends.

DIRECTED OBSERVATIONS

Teachers report that another valuable part of their preparation is a planned program of directed observations in both elementary and secondary schools. Such a program has several purposes. First, the prospective teacher can find opportunities to observe classes throughout the full range of the public schools. In some cases, visits to college freshman English classes are also included. Second, he can apply his general education, academic subject matter, and professional education to his observations of the education program and the pupils throughout the schools. Third, he can begin to see the adjustments he will need to make in his preparation. In some cases he will have to simplify concepts and vocabulary. In others, he will have to do much more reading in aspects of his subjects commonly taught in the schools. Here he may realize the importance of continuing self-education and inservice programs. Fourth, he must begin to make what for some students is the difficult transition from the more or less passive role of the student to the active role of the teacher. Fifth, he may begin to see at what grade level he thinks he would like to do his student teaching or his internship. Sixth, if he has not already done so, he should begin to accumulate a file of materials he will need in his teaching. Seventh, he may participate in teaching a class. Many teachers put observers to work meeting with groups, supervising classroom or library work, giving talks, or helping in a laboratory. In some programs the student spends the last two or three weeks in the classes in which he will be doing his student teaching or internship. In short, a program of directed observations is the student's induction into teaching.

In observing grades one through twelve or thirteen, the future teacher of English can better see the ways in which pupils develop widely varied competence in English. He can see that the range of aptitudes in the primary grades widens as pupils progress through the junior and senior high schools. And he

can see what adjustments schools make to accommodate the individual differences of pupils.

The less teaching experience the observer has, the more must his observations be directed. Just letting a college student sit in the back of a classroom is no guarantee that he will learn much. Instead, a syllabus or guide should suggest what to look for, progressing from the more obvious, general aspects of the school program, teaching, subject matter and skills, and pupils' attitudes and behavior to the more mature, complex, and subtle.

The observer should look for decisions the English teacher has made in identifying objectives and selecting subject matter and activities accordingly. He should try to discern the teacher's purposes, procedures, and materials for teaching critical thinking and problem solving, literature, reading skills, understanding and use of the English language, composition, speaking, and listening. He should look for evidence of the planning of units and individual lessons and the incorporation of students' ideas in planning. He should particularly note the teacher's means of evaluating pupils' performance and progress.

In his observations, he should keep in mind current charges against public education. He should read local and national newspapers and periodicals to keep informed on judgments made about public education, including the charges listed at the beginning of this chapter. He should look for and evaluate the relevant evidence as he sees it during his limited observations. Then he should have an opportunity to discuss objectively these judgments and their validity.

Throughout all these observations and considerations, the student should also be drawing upon his general education, academic subjects, and courses in educational psychology, sociology, philosophy, and methods of teaching English. Because beginning teachers consistently emphasize the importance of discipline and adapting to individual differences, the observer should continuously look for ways in which teachers do or do not establish classroom attitudes and conditions conducive to learning. In the course of all this, he should become fully aware also of the great range of individual differences among teachers, even among those who are equally effective.

The present responsibilities of the teacher of English are broad. In the school of the future, his scope will be even broader. Consequently, the prospective English teacher should observe varied activities. He should visit English classes for retarded and remedial students, average students, accelerated students, and for those in the Advanced Placement Program. Students who become interested in the Advanced Placement Program should also visit college freshman English classes.²⁸ He should observe classes in speech, dramatics, journalism, and regular English classes in which teachers are especially effective in teaching these areas as part of their regular class work. He should have an opportunity to see the newer developments of classroom organization, utilization of teacher time, and ungraded or "phase learning" systems as well as traditional classes. As a result of these experiences, the prospective teacher should realize that he is entering the profession at probably the most exciting period in the history of American education.

Obviously, an inexperienced observer turned loose in classrooms to try on his own to make some meaningful use of this array of possibilities might find the results hopelessly chaotic. His observations should be followed up, of course, by regularly scheduled discussions and written reports. The discussions may be effectively supplemented by inviting to the college class panels of pupils or of teachers from the public schools to discuss their reactions to teachers and teaching, particularly to student teachers, interns, and beginning teachers. They should be encouraged to discuss, without reference to personalities, what they like and dislike about teachers and students.

Prospective teachers must fully accept and be guided by a strong sense of the professional ethics surrounding their experiences in the classrooms and their reactions to them. They must realize that the reactions they report within the confidence of their college class and in their written reports must be discreetly self-censored on all other occasions.

College students should be made to realize also that almost

²⁸ Alfred H. Grommon, "Advanced Placement Program's Implications for the Preparation of Teachers of English," *College English*, 21 (April, 1960), 373-378.

anyone sitting in the back of the classroom—calm, relaxed, obviously full of inspiring yet practical ideas, and free of responsibility for what is happening in a class of twenty, thirty, or even forty adolescents—can imagine himself to be a superior teacher. They should temper their reactions by the realization that soon the positions will be reversed. They could also keep their written reports of their observations so that they may later treat themselves to the sobering, embarrassing experience of rereading their reports when they are part way through their practice teaching or internship.

Arrangements for observations vary, of course, throughout the colleges and universities. In some institutions the program begins as early as the second year of the teacher education program; in others, it is scheduled for the third, fourth, or even fifth year; and in some, it is delayed until the semester of student teaching.

The conventional plan places student teaching in the last year if not in the last term of the program. In some, the practice teacher is in the school each day for two periods for two semesters. In others, he is there for four periods for a semester or quarter, teaching one class in his major, one in his minor, and observing in other classes and participating in other phases of the school program during the other two periods. In still others, he is in school all day for a block of weeks.

The intern is usually employed by the school district for the entire school year; he teaches two, three, or four classes, most in his major but sometimes also in his minor.

Some of the colleges and universities, Ohio State and Yale for example, provide future teachers with the extremely valuable experience of observing and assisting in a public school from the day the teachers meet in the autumn until the college students have to return to college for registration. This arrangement gives candidates an illuminating experience in seeing what happens when a secondary school starts in the autumn.

Ohio State stresses the importance of its candidates' participating in the public schools during early September of their sophomore year. Students enroll in Interpretation of Field Experience in Schools and spend not less than two full weeks in

the schools. The course enables students to get credit for this exploratory experience and to get help in interpreting and evaluating that experience.

Yale has the fifth-year students register by Labor Day. Then they are assigned to local secondary schools to observe and participate in the start of the school year. Until classes begin at the university, they spend full time at the schools. In the late afternoons, they return to the campus for seminars in which they discuss their experiences. These opportunities contribute to future teachers some valuable, practical background and firsthand experiences related to many phases of their subsequent college courses.

Observations may be planned through a separate course or in relation to existing classes. In some programs, students observe in demonstration schools; in others, in public schools; and in still others, in both demonstration and public schools. Students who observe in demonstration schools should be aware of the differences in makeup of the student body and the teaching programs that can be developed there and the student body and teaching programs in public schools. One great advantage of the demonstration school is that especially competent teachers may be selected for observations and that teaching schedules can be arranged and coordinated with the program of directed observations. On the other hand, observers can see good teaching in the public schools in circumstances more likely to be similar to those they will later meet in their own schools.

Any program of observations, of course, meets problems. A major problem is that many teachers are reluctant to accept observers in their classes. Some teachers apparently sense no professional responsibility for helping prepare succeeding generations of teachers—now that those experienced teachers no longer need similar help. This problem demands the attention of the teacher education institutions, local administrators, and professional education organizations.

Another problem may be the lack of continuity in varied observations. However, continuity can come in the last two or

three weeks if the student is then assigned to observe and participate in the classes or in the grade of his practice teaching or internship. The problem of continuity may be minimized if the director of student teaching in the secondary schools also directs the observations. Through his acquaintance with these future teachers during the observations, he may be able to make the best possible assignments to classes and teachers for their practice teaching and internship. He is likely to know enough about each candidate to enable him to try to place each one in the most appropriate circumstances.

A third problem is that of a particular school's coordinating the schedules and activities of observers, student teachers, and interns accepted from one or more neighboring colleges. Some schools have appointed a member of their staff to serve as coordinator of these arrangements planned cooperatively by him and the college representatives.

To clarify the responsibilities of the student teacher and intern, of the supervising teacher in the school, and of the college supervisor, the college should prepare a handbook on student teaching and the internship. It should include a statement of the institution's philosophy of teacher education; the function of student teaching and the internship; the detailed responsibilities of and suggestions for the student teacher, the intern, the supervising teacher in the school, the college supervisor; and the means by which the student teacher and intern are to be evaluated. Periodic meetings of these groups to review their responsibilities and suggestions should greatly benefit all.

The institution should use these meetings and other ways to acknowledge the importance of the cooperating teacher's contributions to the college student's development. Some institutions list cooperating teachers in their publications as members of the staff, offer them privileges available to regular staff members, such as the use of the college library and athletic facilities and priorities in buying tickets to college events, offer them tuition credits toward graduate study, and pay them a modest honorarium for each student they supervise. Somehow, each institution should find ways of appropriately expressing its appreciation.

STUDENT TEACHING AND INTERNSHIP

The culmination of the entire program of teacher education is student teaching and the internship. All the knowledge, understanding, appreciations, attitudes, skills, and habits described and implied throughout the preceding chapters must now be demonstrated.

Whatever may be the charges against professional education, all evidence indicates that student teaching or the internship is the most valuable phase of teacher education as direct preparation for classroom teaching. This claim is not to say that in some cases the arrangements for student teaching and the internship might not be more favorable for the student to demonstrate and develop his full abilities. Even when the circumstances are far from ideal, they may be the best that can be arranged. One major cause of difficulty is included among the charges listed earlier in this chapter: schools do not have enough competent teachers willing to assume responsibility for helping to prepare student teachers. But as imperfect as arrangements may sometimes be, the student does have some opportunity to demonstrate how well at this stage he can fulfill the responsibility of the English teacher in the public schools. The purposes of student teaching and the internship include all those stipulated for the course in methods and a program of directed observations—plus the giant step of giving the student this opportunity to practice and ultimately to demonstrate his potential as a competent teacher of English.

The generally accepted principle is that the more extensive the period of student teaching and internship, the more competent the teacher becomes. The validity of this assumption rests, of course, upon what happens during this experience. It depends in part at least upon how favorable the circumstances are for the student to develop his potential: the qualifications of the student himself, the nature of the class or classes, and the quality of the supervision offered by the resident teacher in the school and by the college representative. Problems inhere in each

of these circumstances. Under normal conditions, however, the more experience the student gets under competent, sympathetic, and understanding guidance, the more rewarding his practice teaching or internship should be.

During this experience, he should have an opportunity to demonstrate his knowledge of his subject, of the purposes of teaching it in public secondary schools, of the organization or structure of the aspects of English his resident teacher and he think suitable for his classes and the period of his teaching; to show that he recognizes the importance of his identifying appropriate objectives in long-term plans, units, lesson plans, and evaluation. Within the framework of the legitimate content of English, he should have an opportunity to help fulfill what some now think to be the central purpose of schools in the United States: teaching pupils to think.

He should have opportunities to teach literature and language and to help his pupils develop their abilities to read, write, speak, and listen. In the process he should demonstrate that he can adjust his materials, methods, and expectations to the abilities of his students, whether they are grouped heterogeneously or homogeneously. He should participate in professional meetings of his local and state councils of teachers of English and have conferences with parents. And throughout all of his teaching, he should demonstrate that he can create and maintain classroom conditions conducive to effective teaching and learning.

The candidate should be permitted to teach as long as possible during his practice teaching or internship. His teaching experience should be realistic, should include an adequate cross section of the responsibilities of the full-time teacher of English, and should be supplemented by his observing experienced teachers and other student teachers and interns. He should observe those who are teaching units and lessons somewhat similar to his, those who are teaching aspects of English he may not be able to include in his course, and those who are teaching grades and students whose abilities, age, and attitudes are different from those of his students. In so far as feasible, he should have opportunities to apply his preparation in his academic subjects, in the methods of teaching English, and in evaluating the effec-

tiveness of materials taught and methods used by teachers he has observed. How much of all this he will be permitted to try will depend, of course, upon his personal and professional qualifications; upon the nature of the classes he is assigned to teach; upon the training, competence, experience, attitudes, and preferences of his resident teacher, and upon the professional relationships between his school and college.

Other critical factors in this process are the competence of the college supervisor, the frequency of his class visits, and his personal and professional relationships with the student, the cooperating teacher, and the cooperating school. Ideally, the supervisor should also be the methods instructor. If the supervisor does not have this combined responsibility, then he and the methods instructor should coordinate their recommendations to the student and to the cooperating teacher in the school. The methods instructor should also see his former students teach as often as he can. If the supervisor is in the department of education, then every effort should be made to get a member of the department of English also to visit students during their practice teaching or internship.²⁹ But whatever the arrangement, they should unmistakably demonstrate to the student and to the public schools that at this most crucial stage in the future teacher's preparation the college is not abdicating in favor of letting the school alone mold this beginning teacher. The conscientiousness of the college supervisor should clearly prove that the college accepts its full responsibility for ensuring the welfare of its student, the public school classes, the cooperating teacher, and its relations with the school.

Conferences between the student teacher and his cooperating teacher and between the student and his college supervisor have

²⁹ Cartwright reports that twenty-five academic professors at Duke have visited student teachers in a single year. ("An All-University Approach to Teacher Education," *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*, p. 141.)

One especially important feature of the twenty summer institutes sponsored by the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board was that a member of the Department of English in each of the host colleges and universities was required during the following autumn to visit the English classes of every teacher of English who had participated in his department's institute the preceding summer.

great importance. The student probably has almost daily conferences with his cooperating teacher. But each week, at least one of these conferences should be long enough to enable the student and his teacher to plan the work for the coming week or even longer. Over the weekend, the student can develop his units and lesson plans. Once each week he should meet with his college supervisor individually or as a member of a group of students who are teaching English to present his materials and daily lesson plans to be used during that week. During these weekly conferences the supervisor should discuss these units and plans and also his reactions to the students' teaching recently observed. At the close of the student teaching assignment in the school, the supervisor should hold follow-up conferences with the student and the cooperating teacher.³⁰ All of these responsibilities and arrangements should be included in the handbook so that each person knows what is expected of him.

Perhaps the greatest problem is evaluating the performance and potential of each student teacher or intern. Many rating scales and other devices have been developed. *Teacher Competence: Its Nature and Scope*, prepared by the Commission on Teacher Education of the California Teachers Association and many times revised by the CTA and by some teacher education institutions using the pamphlet, is one example of a definition of what characterizes the competent teacher. "A Standard of Preparation to Teach English," the outline prepared by the NCTE Committee on National Interest,³¹ may also help departments appraise their students preparing to teach English. Some institutions use tape recordings and sound films made while the student is teaching. National tests have been used to assess qualifications of applicants and predict their success as teachers. Because of the complexities and uncertainties inherent in evaluating future teachers, the college should devote its best resources to developing the means of passing judgment.

Whatever a candidate's competence at completion of the pro-

³⁰ For suggestions on supervising classroom teaching and on follow-up conferences, see Alfred H. Grommon, "Improving Classroom Instruction," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 33 (May, 1947), 300-309.

³¹ *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, pp. 40-42.

gram of teacher education, he still enters the profession as a beginner. As is fully discussed in Chapter 8 of this volume, the college should establish a program of follow-up studies of its graduates during their first two years of full-time teaching to fulfill even further its responsibilities for the teachers it prepares for the profession, to cooperate with the school districts employing them, and to gather information for improving its program for educating teachers of English.

GENERAL SUMMARY

The point of view throughout this chapter is that professional education contributes significantly to the preparation of the future teacher. Indispensable as programs in general education and academic preparation are to him as a liberally educated person and as a prospective teacher, they do not by themselves prepare the student to fulfill the complex roles of the teacher of English, a subject required of *all* students in public secondary schools.

Only through some pattern of courses and other experiences in professional education is the candidate likely to acquire—*before* he assumes responsibility for shaping the minds and lives of adolescents—essential understanding of human growth and development, especially the processes of learning and teaching, some knowledge of the nature and roles of public education in the United States, and some knowledge of and guided practice in using methods of teaching his subjects based upon research and a systematic study of English teachers' experience reported in the literature. Thus he, as a beginner, is helped to minimize trial-and-error teaching, that may be at the expense of his students.

Among the criticisms of professional education listed earlier is one stating that professional educators lack an "adequate unifying theory" of teacher education. Perhaps this charge is valid. Because of the many variables among candidates, college teachers, college circumstances, arrangements in the schools, and college programs of teacher education, a unifying theory would certainly be invaluable.

On the other hand, perhaps no such theory is possible. In the absence of such a theory and of evidence sanctioning the infallibility of any particular program, the elements advocated throughout this chapter have been placed within a framework of indispensables: the professional responsibilities of the high school English teacher, the outline of standards of preparation advocated by the NCTE Committee on National Interest, the essentials of the candidate's preparation in methods of teaching the many components of English as a secondary school subject, and recommendations for extended practice teaching in the schools.

The purpose of this chapter has been to recommend content and procedures that may help institutions strengthen their programs for preparing future teachers of English by achieving full cooperation among all departments, by examining closely both the academic and professional programs, and by testing diverse programs and courses. Different courses in professional education may be designed to present content and experiences organized in new ways. A program of student teaching in the fourth or fifth year could be followed by a well-paid, full-year program of internship in the fifth or sixth year. The University of Chicago's six-year program described earlier illustrates some of these possibilities.

But the biggest single problem remains that of recruiting an adequate supply of academically talented students for careers in teaching. Efforts to recruit and to strengthen programs should proceed simultaneously. Unquestionably, the better the program becomes, the greater its appeal to the better students.

Finally, the institution and its candidates must realize that its graduates enter the profession as beginners. To continue its own contributions, however, the institution should help school districts develop and conduct for their teachers programs of in-service education and follow-up programs for assessing the effectiveness of its graduates as full-time teachers.

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Part III

**PROVIDING FOR CONTINUING
EDUCATION**

❁ *Major Recommendations*

1. The ultimate purpose of inservice education is the improvement of the total educational program, but because the teacher is a key figure in this endeavor, the focus of inservice education should be on the development of the teacher's individual potential.
2. Inservice education is needed to fill the gap between generations of teachers.
3. Inservice education should make good use of the competencies of teachers in local districts.
4. Inservice education should reveal the role of the teacher in relation to others in the profession.
5. Inservice education should maintain a sound balance between content and method in English.
6. The elementary teacher and the secondary teacher of English should be provided in their schools with a basic library of professional books on the teaching of English.
7. Follow-up studies of graduates should be conducted by teacher education institutions for the purpose of evaluating programs and for acquainting faculty members with the problems of classroom teachers.
8. The attention to follow-up activities by our colleges needs to be increased substantially.
9. In conducting follow-up surveys, both English and education faculties of a college need to work closely together.
10. Follow-up programs should permit reasonably frequent classroom visitation by experienced consultants and supervisors, followed by personal conferences aimed at helping the teacher.

PREVIEW

PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSERVICE EDUCATION AND
THE ASSIGNMENT OF TEACHERS
PEOPLE AND ORGANIZATIONS THAT HELP DETERMINE THE
EFFECTIVENESS OF ENGLISH PROGRAMS
AIMS OF INSERVICE EDUCATION
DESIRABLE KINDS OF PROJECTS FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION
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LANGUAGE ARTS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS
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GENERAL SUMMARY
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CHAPTER 7

Inservice Programs for Improving Instruction in Elementary and Secondary Schools

A COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY can only *begin* the education of a teacher of English. It tries to send the new teacher into his own classroom with the best possible *minimum* knowledge of English language and literature, adequate skill in using the English language, and some competence in teaching procedures. College preparation cannot anticipate all the needs of the classes and the community in which the prospective teacher will find himself; it cannot make the beginner aware of all the gaps which exist in the English language backgrounds of his students; it cannot sufficiently acquaint him with all he needs to know of standard and contemporary books suitable for younger readers; it cannot indicate all the implications of research; it cannot ensure that he will continue to read and keep up with his field.

Many of the most important phases of teacher education will occur after the teacher begins his career and will continue as long as he remains in the profession. Many teachers voluntarily improve themselves professionally. Interested in new ideas, they attend workshops, summer schools, and professional conferences, and they read professional books and magazines.

The effects of a teacher's individual efforts to improve himself

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as a cultured person and as a teacher may not necessarily be so widespread as those he may make directly to improving a program for his department, school, or district. Yet the individual's efforts are of utmost importance. They must not be minimized by any inservice program. The environment of the school and the system must not force the individual teacher into a faceless mold. The teacher's individuality, creativeness, and special talents in keeping up with his professional responsibilities as an educator should be encouraged. The following discussion of inservice programs is in no way intended to suggest that the teacher should thereby be shaped into an organization man.

Nevertheless, important as those activities are, they do not necessarily improve the teaching of English in general. As desirable as they may be, an individual teacher's professional interests and activities for self-improvement may have, because of their personal nature, only limited influence upon the professional goals adopted for a school staff or a group of schools within a system. Planned inservice programs of continuing education contribute to the development of a sound curriculum as well as to the teacher's professional life.

PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Preceding chapters indicate the extensive responsibilities inherent in the teaching of English in the elementary and secondary schools. Part I pointed out that because the teacher of the English language arts in the elementary school must also teach all the other subjects in the curriculum, many college and university programs seldom permit him to specialize in courses in English and related subjects. Yet the very nature of English teaching presupposes his having certain specialized knowledge and competencies. How well he teaches the child to read, write, listen, and speak may determine that child's future success in school.

Although the secondary school teacher of English does not have to teach as many different subjects as does the elementary school teacher, he nevertheless has to teach several subjects and skills within the scope of English. He needs to keep up continuously with research on the teaching of English.

INSERVICE EDUCATION AND THE ASSIGNMENT OF TEACHERS

Unfortunately, credentials issued to teachers in many parts of the United States authorize administrators to assign English classes to those who have little more college training in English than the handful of units required of all undergraduate students as a part of general education.¹ In addition to this group of certified teachers are the many with substandard credentials; they, too, may teach English. Such questionable expedients suggest appalling consequences. But when too few well-qualified teachers are available, a principal who must keep his school open may have little choice when hiring and assigning teachers. Until the supply of qualified teachers can be assured, programs of inservice education must help substandard teachers overcome their deficiencies.

EFFECTIVENESS OF PROGRAMS

Effective inservice education is a complex process. To conceive of it as something that happens in one classroom, department, or school is to oversimplify it. To conceive of it as affecting only teachers also oversimplifies it. This chapter, therefore, bases the inservice education of English language arts teachers on the cooperation of such agencies as state departments of education; county and local school systems; college and university departments of English, speech, and education; summer session and field service agencies of colleges and universities; state and local organizations of administrators, supervisors, and curriculum directors; and local, state, and national organizations of teachers of English.

All these people affect in some way the quality of instruction in English classes, even though they may not be concerned

¹ A median of 16 to 18 semester hours is all that is required by some state certifying agencies to teach English as a full load or a part load. In sixteen states not more than twelve semester hours is required. Seven states specify no clear minimum. Cf. NCTE, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1961), p. 47.

primarily with the teaching of English in the elementary and secondary schools. They can together improve instruction if they are not at cross purposes through lack of communication and coordination.

ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS

Inservice programs designed for teachers depend largely upon administrators', supervisors', and teachers' concepts of inservice education. The educational background, experience, and training of administrators and supervisors may directly affect, of course, their concepts of the function of inservice education.² The attitudes of those who have backgrounds in the humanities and sciences may influence the quality of programs in English

² For example, in one state, many administrators are former coaches and teachers of industrial arts. See Eugene S. Dils, "Position Sequences of California School Superintendents" (Unpublished dissertation, School of Education, Stanford University, Stanford, California, 1953).

On the other hand, for information about the academic preparation of 859 urban superintendents distributed throughout the country, see *Professional Administration for America's Schools*, Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, 1960 (Washington: AASA), 26-27. The yearbook reports the following academic preparation of these superintendents: 84 per cent have either a B.A., B.S., Bachelor of Philosophy, or Bachelor of Literature; 15 per cent have a bachelor's degree in education. Their undergraduate majors and minors are as follows:

	Major (Approx. %)	Minor (Approx. %)
Behavioral sciences (anthropology, sociology, economics, etc.)	18	15
Education	17	14
Physical and biological sciences	15	19
History and political science	15	11
Mathematics	11	11
English	9	15
Health and physical education	3	
Industrial and vocational arts	2	
Miscellaneous (foreign languages, health, physical education, business education, etc.)		5
Others	10	10

In commenting upon these findings, the authors write: "The undergraduate background of America's school superintendents is strong in the intellectual studies of the modern liberal arts. This finding should put to rest speculation that superintendents have been exposed only to professional education and physical education."

and other academic subjects. Schools that have a strong program in English will usually have an administrator deeply committed to the values of English. Constructive relationships and inservice programs are not likely to exist when administrators and supervisors believe that *only* teachers need professional improvement. Rather, they can most help to improve instruction in English if they first understand the complex job of the English teacher and the specific school conditions needed to help English teachers improve their courses and teaching.

A number of states permit the employment on emergency permits of elementary teachers with substandard training. Many of these teachers are women who have raised families and now want to teach and earn in the home community. A few of the women were prepared for elementary teaching a number of years ago. Others are people who took their undergraduate degrees in academic fields or in preparation for other vocations. A few are former athletic coaches or high school teachers who wish to use a brief period of elementary school teaching as a stepping stone to the elementary school principalship. Because of the serious shortage of well-prepared elementary teachers or because of local pressures, these people are given permits and are employed to teach elementary school children. Inservice training for these teachers is essential if the education of children is to be effective.

Leaders in elementary education have long called attention to the relationship between class size and quality of learning. The needs of young children demand that the teacher have time to know each child and to give him the individual attention he deserves. A child's success or failure in learning to read depends upon the skill with which the teacher diagnoses his problems and adjusts techniques and expectations to his needs and capabilities. Vocabulary building and the substitution of standard English for substandard must to a large extent be handled individually. Individual attention is needed in the middle and upper grades to enable children to develop study and writing skills and interest in wide reading. The quality of background which teachers can give children for their later work in English is closely related to teacher load.

For instance, Dusel has shown in his study the relationship

between teaching load and the quality of instruction in English composition.³ He reports the amount of time teachers required to evaluate a sample student's theme for different teaching purposes. Dusel's analysis of the papers read by over 400 teachers shows that if a school wishes to help pupils develop thoughtful insights and continued growth in thinking and skill in writing, the school must provide the teacher with the additional time to evaluate each composition constructively and make suggestions to the student for improvement. The teacher needs more instructional time for such a purpose than if he merely marks the more obvious mistakes or reads the paper just to assign a grade.

Administrators need to recognize the security and support which many teachers of English can gain from well-organized programs of inservice education. Often they can give the supervising principal, the supervisor, or the chairman of the English department released time to guide individual teachers. The value of such personal assistance is suggested in the following statement by a teacher in New York:

For seven years I taught in a well-organized high school and enjoyed my pupils but felt little cohesion in the department. A supervisor from the central office visited classes once or twice a year, made reports and criticisms to the principal, but did not give helpful suggestions to the teacher following the visit. No person in the school except the principal was available for help or encouragement or for giving ideas on methods of classroom procedure. After a time I became vaguely conscious of the large amount of illness and fatigue among our teachers even after vacations.

When I transferred to another school, I was impressed immediately by the buoyancy of the teachers and the general feeling of friendliness. After a time my conclusions were that much of the fatigue and illness in my former school resulted from frustration and lack of security. In other words, it wasn't the extra heavy load which caused teachers to be tired and worn but the constant irritations and the need for a person to whom teachers could take their problems.

In the second school we had a head of the English department.

³ William J. Dusel, "Determining an Efficient Teaching Load in English," *Illinois English Bulletin*, 53 (October, 1955). (Urbana, Ill.: Illinois Association of Teachers of English.)

She knew the local school problems. *She taught several classes and was responsible for helping, encouraging, and stimulating her teachers, thus carrying on real supervision. Here, I think, a head of department was largely responsible for improvement of teaching and building good morale throughout the school.*⁴

Administrators are often seriously concerned about students' deficiencies in reading ability. If both administrators and teachers are aware of the extent to which pupils' reading skills and habits and literary appreciation are related to library facilities, the library book budget, for example, will more likely benefit and reflect its role in improving reading instruction and increasing leisure reading.

Administrators can furnish materials that help teachers of English provide for individual differences. Quantities of good books appealing to a wide variety of interests are available for elementary school children. Recorded literature is adaptable to different students but requires playback facilities. Therefore, in the school budget, playback equipment and book collections are as important to the English teacher as are stoves and sewing machines to the teacher of home economics, test tubes and bunsen burners to the instructor in chemistry, or tape recorders to the foreign language teacher.

Apparently, few people think that English classes require any laboratory facilities. Hence, school boards often plan classrooms merely according to the number of square feet per pupil. Classroom planners should provide facilities for classroom libraries, for flexible seating arrangements, for films and slides, for overhead projectors and TV, for recording equipment, and for files that teachers might use for displaying books, periodicals, and students' work; for large group instruction or small group conferences; for illustrating structure and organization; for evaluating oral work; and for filing students' compositions.

To be most effective, then, a program of inservice education requires the administrators' moral, professional, and financial support.

⁴ "Changing Our Sights in Supervision," *English Record*, XI: 3 (Spring, 1961), 47. (Geneseo, N.Y.: New York State English Council.)

AIMS OF INSERVICE EDUCATION

Teachers of English need inservice education directed toward four aims: (1) increased knowledge of subject matter, (2) shifts in attitudes and perspective, (3) greater skill in teaching methods, and (4) assistance with local curriculum problems. Concrete illustrations will serve to clarify each.

KNOWLEDGE OF SUBJECT MATTER

For six or seven years the Curriculum Commission of the Central California Council of Teachers of English has informally surveyed the needs of teachers for inservice education. Through answering check lists or through meetings with elementary and secondary school supervisors, curriculum directors and department heads have requested help in such subject matter areas as these:

1. More understanding of how children learn language and how they can be helped to improve.
2. Greater understanding of how children learn to read and write and how to care for individual differences.
3. Opportunities for advanced reading and study of American, English, and world literature.
4. More understanding of the English language, especially knowledge of modern linguistics.
5. Knowledge of contemporary books and contemporary writers.
6. Knowledge of books for young people.
7. Greater understanding of the nature of the writing skills desired of entering freshmen by colleges and universities.

Additional evidence concerning these needs is presented by the Committee on the National Interest in *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*. For example, the evidence that only two-fifths of prospective elementary teachers take a course in grammar, that many have had no courses in the teaching of reading, that some have had none in children's literature,

and that only 31 per cent of college English majors completed courses in advanced composition has clear implications for programs of inservice education.⁵

SHIFTS IN ATTITUDES AND PERSPECTIVE

Inservice education must often be directed toward shifts in attitude and perspective. Attitudes may inhibit the use a teacher makes of his knowledge and cause him to be unaware of factors that would improve his teaching. If the classroom teacher has not studied the following relationships in his previous preparation, he should become familiar with them through inservice education. Full understanding of them may change his attitudes and promote his effectiveness in teaching:

The relation of pupil development to acquisition of language skills

The relation of children's reading interests to their reading habits

The relation of average adult attainment to what is expected of children in vocabulary, reading, and writing

The relation of the class structure of American society to language usage, especially in a given community

The relation of reliance on oral communication in present society to the shifts in the nature of communication

The relation of current research in reading, spelling, and grammar to methods of teaching these subjects and skills

The relation of mass education in a democracy to the teaching problems of a specific school

The relation of the educational program of a school or school district to that of the English department; the relation of the school and departmental program to the work of any one teacher

The relation of current philosophies of education to one teacher's beliefs about content, standards, and teaching procedures

The relation of one teacher's association with his colleagues, departmental heads, supervisors, curriculum directors, and administrators to the total school.

⁵ *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, pp. 55, 70.

SKILL IN TEACHING METHODS

Teachers commonly need help with certain teaching methods. Teaching secondary school reading as well as elementary school reading needs special attention. Other problems of teaching method are closely related to reading, both in the secondary and the elementary school: teaching fast- and slow-learning students, directing group work, guiding student reading, teaching literature, and organizing teaching units. Many teachers are also concerned about managing large classes, providing sufficient practice in composition, directing effective discussion, and teaching poetry.

Teachers stress the importance of *specific* help. Concrete illustrations of content are more useful than generalizations. Help with the teaching of poetry is more useful, usually, than help with the teaching of literature in general. Discussion of a particular poem may be more meaningful than a general discussion of the teaching of poetry. Showing how to interest a student in Robert Frost instead of Edgar Guest is more pertinent than teaching literary appreciation by itself.

HELP IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM

Teachers of English frequently are responsible for reorganizing or improving the curriculum in their school. Current theory in American education distinguishes between the *plan* for the curriculum, as it appears in written form as a course of study or curriculum guide, and the *real* curriculum, as it is carried out in the classroom by teachers. The more the classroom teachers are involved in curriculum making in its initial stages, the more likely the program as developed will become a reality in the classrooms. A course of study written by only a few teachers is likely to appear to the majority of the faculty as a mandatory document with which they feel little identification. An inservice program should explain the basic thinking that developed the plan.

Teachers working on curriculum programs usually want to learn about

1. Basic issues

2. Types of possible organization and structure of the curriculum
3. Outstanding courses of study and curriculum guides
4. Scope and sequence charts developed by other groups of teachers
5. Objectives for the whole program and for specific phases of it
6. Language abilities, achievement, and needs of the pupils in the school system
7. Practices for meeting individual differences, especially proposals for improving the learning experiences of superior pupils and retarded pupils
8. Texts and other instructional materials
9. Superior resource units and teaching units.

PROJECTS FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

1. *Some Inservice Education Projects Primarily Need to Fill the Gap Between Generations of Teachers.* Young teachers, coming fresh from colleges and universities, frequently have new insights that can help make teaching more vital. On the other hand, teachers of another generation frequently have wisdom, knowledge of materials, and skills of method and class management, that are products of experience. One task of inservice education is to prevent the division of a faculty into opposing radical and conservative groups, educationally speaking, of course. In the team teaching at Evanston Township High School, Illinois, beginning and experienced teachers of English work together on teaching procedures in groups of three or four persons.

2. *Inservice Projects Should Often Use Local Teachers as Resource People for Ideas and Techniques.* Programs should consciously encourage teachers to describe best practices and share book lists, units and lesson plans, practice exercises or assignments. For example, Seattle, Washington, teachers have long exchanged successful English units. When teachers use colleagues as resources for good ideas and practices, mutual respect develops. Frequently such sharing reduces duplication of effort and helps teachers see themselves, and not someone else, as the agents of growth.

3. *Inservice Education Projects Should Reveal Teachers'*

Professional Roles in Perspective. Teachers need to see their role in the total program of the school district and in the community. As members of a professional group having special responsibilities for improving the language competencies of young adults, they need to relate themselves to others in their profession at the state and national level. Attendance at state English meetings and at conventions of the National Council of Teachers of English is invaluable.

4. *Inservice Education Projects Should Avoid Requiring Teachers to Undertake Added Responsibilities on Their Own Time.* Wise administrators recognize that teachers' morale is usually higher if some provision is made for released time, financial assistance, modified teaching assignments, or salary increment credit in cases of an extensive curricular program. As a standard practice, the federal government, the armed services, and many business corporations provide company time for training programs. In school systems, also, curriculum work should be regarded as a professional responsibility of teachers. Later sections of this chapter will give examples.

SOME FACILITATING PRINCIPLES

By observing five important principles, those responsible for inservice education will do much to assure successful programs.

1. *Teachers and Supervisors and the Other People Involved in Inservice Education Projects Should Be Respected as Competent Professional Persons.* No one likes to be manipulated in curriculum work. Each person wants to take part because of his competence as a teacher and his classroom knowledge of teaching problems.

2. *Inservice Education Can Help Individual Teachers Develop Their Potential as Teachers.* Since growth in understanding and skill takes place *within* the teacher, administrators should be aware of the possible strengths of individual teachers in their classrooms.

3. *Good Inservice Education Encourages Teachers Themselves to Assume Leadership in the Profession.* According to their

special competencies, teachers can assume increased responsibility in helping their fellow instructors become better teachers.

4. *Inservice Education for English Teachers Should Maintain a Close Relationship Between Content and Method.* Teachers appreciate assistance from people who have experience and mastery of content in fields such as reading, literature, composition, grammar, and speech, and successful experience in methods of teaching them.

5. *People Involved in Inservice Education Projects Should Be Aware of How Language, Communication, and Behavior Can Facilitate Discussion and Cooperation and How They Can Block or Frustrate Cooperative Discussion and Behavior.*

INSERVICE ACTIVITIES

Because activities designed to improve the teaching and curriculum in schools do not of themselves guarantee improvement, procedures reviewed here are illustrated by practices which have proved promising.

CLASSROOM VISITS BY SUPERVISORS

A supervisor's visit to a classroom is likely to be most helpful when a teacher has invited the supervisor or otherwise regards him as a competent friend. An unwanted visitor can be so much of an irritant to a teacher that the teacher's feelings and attitudes prevent the success desired by both the supervisor and the teacher. Visits are productive also when teachers understand that supervisors come to their classes to identify special competencies which may be useful elsewhere in the program.

USE OF TEACHERS WITH SPECIAL COMPETENCIES

Frequently the teaching staff itself can supervise classrooms. In the Oakland, California, Public Schools, interviews with teachers revealed phases of instruction in which teachers most needed and wanted assistance. Outstanding teachers in these fields were located in the city's schools and were released from

the regular teaching schedule for a year or more, their places being taken by long-term substitute teachers. These master teachers then went as consultants to beginning teachers and to the teachers who had asked for assistance. The master teachers conferred with these teachers, observed pupils in the classrooms, and taught demonstration lessons when asked to do so.

In the San Francisco Public Schools, curriculum assistants in the secondary schools are almost always master teachers who have been freed from classroom assignments to work on curriculum projects in the central administrative office. After training in the city curriculum department, they are reassigned to a school where they have both teaching and curriculum duties. In Chicago and in Montgomery County, Maryland, outstanding teachers of English have sometimes been employed during the summer to work on curriculum projects in the central office. South Dakota recently followed a similar plan on a statewide basis when the state department of education paid the summer expenses of selected English teachers to work at the state university on a new curriculum guide. In Indianapolis both elementary and secondary teachers obtained credit at Indiana University for summer work on an English curriculum for kindergarten through the twelfth grade.

WORK ON COMMITTEES

Service on committees frequently contributes to the educational growth of teachers. Committee activity involves the exchange of ideas; consideration of different points of view, argument and proofs; and decisions that require thoughtful deliberation. Many teachers feel that group solutions for some educational problems are based upon more factors than those arrived at by one person. But teachers also recognize that committee assignments can add greatly to their teaching loads. In some situations, committee assignments may cause resentments, may actually bring about inferior teaching by overloading teachers with responsibilities not directly related to their teaching, and may create frustrations.

The schools of St. Paul attempt to create the right kind of morale for committee work through a teachers' board elected by

the professional staff. This board recommends appointments to a curriculum steering committee composed of teachers; one principal each from the elementary schools, the junior high schools, and the senior high school; three supervisors; and the assistant superintendent. The committee, a clearing house for the various programs of curriculum development, sponsors and directs other committees on curriculum and inservice education.

USE OF OUTSIDE CONSULTANTS

Many schools or school systems use a consultant from outside the school system who is a specialist in some phase of English. He may be a master teacher, a supervisor, a member of a state or local English association, an officer of the National Council of Teachers of English, a staff member of a college or university or a state department of education. The term *consultant* suggests that he is a person who works *with* a group of teachers. As an outsider he can consider local curriculum or instructional problems with more objectivity and deeper analysis than perhaps are possible for local staff members.

Certain conditions are necessary if a consultant is to perform his role well. His proper role is to advise and guide and suggest alternatives and procedures; his function, to facilitate the thinking and work of the group. Leadership in the local group must be vital and strong enough to maintain the integrity and objectivity of the consultant in his role as adviser and specialist. The consultant cannot function well if the group which employs him attempts to transfer to him its responsibilities for matters of policy and materials which properly belong to the local group.

Frequently the role of the consultant is made difficult because he has not had sufficient opportunity to confer with the administrators, supervisors, and teachers in the system. The following procedures can assist the consultant to function more adequately:

1. Choose a consultant carefully and then give him an opportunity to work with a staff over a period of time. Too often the short-term use of consultants amounts to nothing but a perennial reviewing of problems without provision for any solutions.

2. Allow the consultant, through interviews and meetings, an opportunity to become acquainted with local conditions, especially (a) with the attitudes and expectations of the administrators toward the problems with which the consultant is expected to assist and (b) with the attitudes and expectations of the teaching staff.
3. After some discussion with him, determine the work of the consultant by soliciting his suggestions concerning practical procedures for local circumstances.
4. Provide occasional conferences between the consultant and the administrators to discuss the progress of the project.
5. Provide for the consultant to work with supervisors as well as with teachers so that local supervisors can assume responsibility for carrying forward suggestions of the consultant in his absence.
6. Invite the consultant to suggest "next steps" before releasing him from his responsibilities. Almost all curriculum projects require some future implementation. The consultant should share in the concern for the future development of the in-service program.

These procedures stress the point that hiring a consultant should be the sign that administrators have assumed new responsibility, not just delegated their responsibility for curriculum and instruction.

The senior high schools of Milwaukee carried on an inservice education program which used extensively two consultants from the Department of English of the University of Wisconsin.⁶ Most of a spring semester was devoted to a preliminary examination of the teaching of English in the city high schools. Local leadership involved the city superintendent, members of the city curriculum staff, the principals of each high school, and the heads of English departments. All English teachers were involved.

The program was designed to assist the Milwaukee teaching staff in assessing all phases of the English curriculum in grades 9 through 12: to consider basic points of view in English instruc-

⁶ Robert C. Pooley and John R. Searles.

tion, to determine goals of achievement, to discover to what extent students were actually meeting those goals, to consider teaching procedures, to secure from consultants their recommendations for improvement.

The procedure had several major steps. The chairmen of English departments sent curriculum materials to the consultants for study. Since these materials revealed considerable diversity in details of teaching English in each grade, the consultants first prepared a statement of basic points of view for comparison with current teaching procedures. They sent the statement to the teachers with a list of leading questions for discussion at conferences with English staffs of each high school. At these conferences each teacher was asked to make a "self-study" of the English curriculum according to a suggested outline. The consultants studied these reports and analyzed them according to the following topics:

The organization of the curriculum

The study of literature

Reading

Composition

Speech and oral English

Language, grammar, and usage

Spelling

Use of the library and dictionary.

For each topic the consultants summarized teachers' opinions, discussed basic issues, and made suggestions or recommendations which were published as a report of the consultants to the superintendent of schools. Following are the list of basic assumptions and the outline for self-study of the curriculum used by the consultants:

SOME BASIC ASSUMPTIONS IN TEACHING HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH ⁷

Ultimate Goals of English. English instruction is successful when students can speak forcefully and convincingly; can write with ac-

⁷ From *The Program of English Instruction in Milwaukee High Schools*, June, 1956, a mimeographed report to the superintendent of schools.

curacy, economy, and interest; can read well enough to turn to books for information and pleasure; can find enjoyment and spiritual uplift in fiction, poetry, biography, and other literary forms. Even though seldom fully attained, these are the purposes for teaching English.

The English Language. English is a live medium of communication; it lives on the tongues of those who speak it. It is subject to change; change is often desirable. The teacher's responsibility is to know so far as possible what is modern English rather than to preserve what was. "Correctness" in English is a relative term; it is derived from the way English is used for the exchange of ideas. Appropriateness in language is a major consideration.

Grammar. Grammar is of slight value in the teaching of correct usage, at least for young people. Grammar is of great value in the teaching of sentence structure. The teaching of grammar should be built upon a cumulative, developmental plan to stress understanding of concepts and should be constantly interrelated with writing. Grammar is the tool to improved sentence structure, which is the foundation of better writing.

Usage. Good usage comes from the establishment of desirable language habits. Since large numbers of young people are exposed, through no fault of their own, to substandard language patterns, the substitution of better patterns must be an essential part of the language curriculum. Habits are best taught in the setting of actual, meaningful communication. Therefore, practice in actual writing and speaking English for intelligent purposes is superior to workbooks, grammar drills, or any other formalized instruction separated from communication in the creating and maintaining of sound usage habits.

Speaking and Listening. Practice in speaking should develop the resources of each student for his ordinary needs in spoken communication: greater ease, better organization, increasing fluency and general effectiveness. Parallel is the training of a class audience to be attentive, to comprehend and recall what they hear, and to criticize politely and constructively the content and delivery of classroom speaking: recitations, reports, speeches, and discussions.

Composition. The art of writing develops slowly and parallels the maturity of the student. An effective program in writing should be developmental, moving from the simple to the more complex, with patterns of specific growth in sentence structure, command of vocabulary, ability to organize, and ability to expand a topic from a few statements to many paragraphs. Essential to the teaching of writ-

ing are regular practice at frequent intervals and the careful analysis of students' writing by the teacher.

Reading. Reading skills also develop slowly and require constant practice. Studies reveal that the major cause of poor reading at the high school level is lack of practice rather than lack of ability. Instruction in reading at the high school level involves growth in vocabulary, growth in the ability to find quickly the central thought of a paragraph, ability to note and retain essential facts, ideas, or conclusions. Responsibility for reading growth rests upon the teachers of all subjects. Growth in the skills and abilities leading to the understanding and enjoyment of the various kinds of literature is the province of the English teacher.

Literature. The term "literature" embraces a very wide range of materials, from simple stories and poems written for and about adolescents to the great treasures of English and American literature by such authors as Shakespeare, Milton, and Emerson. Literary values are developed by the wise use of literature which students can understand. Every student should have some of his reading in the best literature he is capable of grasping. Conversely, no student should be forced through literature beyond his powers, no matter how famous the author or lofty the content. These principles indicate the need for a careful choice of materials, and considerable variety to meet levels of ability.

SOME LEADING QUESTIONS

1. Is adequate time given to English composition in the high school grades? Are students writing regularly, in a developmental program, leading to specific gains in writing skills? To what extent can students receive regular and careful analysis of their written work?
2. Are the elements of sentence structure allocated to specific grade levels so that students make gradual but solid progress in the use of grammar for more effective writing? Is there overloading or unnecessary repetition in the grammar program?
3. Are the specific skills leading to progress in reading adequately practiced, especially in grades 9 and 10? Is there strong motivation by all teachers to increase the unassigned general reading of students? Are reading materials adequate, and are they readily available?
4. Is provision made to adapt literature instruction to the abilities of students, to use for each, so far as is possible, the kind of materials

as will lead him to the understanding, enjoyment, and appreciating of literature itself?

SUGGESTED OUTLINE FOR SELF-STUDY OF THE
ENGLISH CURRICULUM

I. *Basic Assumptions.* Please study the assumptions set forth in the letter signed by Dr. Pooley and Dr. Searles. Taking each principle in turn, do you as a faculty agree with it? (a) almost completely? (b) with minor dissent? (c) mostly disagree? (d) cannot accept it? For each assumption, what are the major points of dissent?

II. *Organization of the English Curriculum.* Does your school give reading and literature major attention in one semester, and grammar and composition in the other? Or do you use an integrated plan with grammar, composition, reading, and literature given in separate or combined units throughout the year? What is your recommendation as to the divided or integrated plans? Does your school make specific curriculum differentiation for less able students? In what school year? What are the distinguishing characteristics of the differentiation? In what ways do materials and methods differ? Is the fourth year of English elective in your school? What percentage of your students elect it? What percentage of students who enter college elect it?

III. *Content and Methods of Instruction.*

Literature. What basic purpose or purposes underlie the plan and content of the literature in each high school year? (e.g., 9th year, ability to understand and enjoy varied types of literature experience.) Do the selections now used reflect this purpose or these purposes? What selections are required of all students? Is there a separate literature course for less able students? For superior students?

Reading. What specific reading skills are the responsibility of the 9th year teacher? Of the 10th year teacher?

How are students encouraged to do wide individual reading? What quantity of outside reading is required? Does the requirement differ according to ability? Is a variety of types required?

Composition. What is the plan for growth in written composition at each high school year? In general averages, how many compositions are students required to write? In the light of current conditions, how many of these can receive analysis and correction by the teacher?

Speech. What types of speech experience and training are assigned to each high school year in the regular English program? What special speech courses are offered? In what years? Are they required or elective?

Spelling. Is regular and formal instruction in spelling a part of the course of study? In what school years? What are the sources of the spelling words?

Usage. Is skill in usage taught chiefly by exercises provided by the textbook? By exercises prepared by the teacher? By workbooks or drill pads? Does the course of study indicate what usage must be taught and what may be omitted?

Grammar. Is grammar (sentence structure, parts of speech, syntax, etc.) taught in each of the four years? Is there a plan generally followed to emphasize certain elements or skills in each particular year? Is the grammar taught primarily from such a syllabus? From the textbook? From a workbook?

IV. *Recommendations.* As a faculty, what changes in the current organization of the curriculum would you like to recommend? What changes in classroom methods and materials might be desirable? In what ways can the administration and central office help you in arriving at a satisfactory course of study?

The total project undertaken by the Milwaukee schools illustrates how a report from outside consultants may be used to stimulate self-study by a school faculty. By asking crucial questions, the consultants directed the attention of teachers to significant problems in curriculum development which might otherwise have been overlooked.

Sometimes school districts use outside consultants in other ways. The Chicago Public Schools have called special conferences of scholars in subject fields to assist in curriculum planning. Professors of English from six midwestern universities spent two days analyzing the aims of English instruction in Chicago schools. Two specialists in secondary school English and one elementary supervisor participated in the conference led by the assistant superintendent in charge of curriculum. Focus was entirely on the content of the program, not on methodology. The staff members present summarized the deliberations for use by a curriculum committee which was brought in later to work on materials. Thus the outside consultants were employed primarily to establish a basic philosophy or a statement of priorities about subject matter which could guide the work of the committee of teachers.

Occasionally colleges release instructors from their classroom

duties to devote some time to inservice education. The University of Washington assigned a faculty member to work with teachers and schools to establish high school Advanced Placement courses in all subjects, including English. The University of Delaware has provided time for an English professor to concentrate on the articulation of school programs in English; the chairman of the department at the University of Louisville spent a year visiting high schools of the state; and such state universities as Illinois and Michigan have developed continuing programs for consultation between high schools and colleges.⁸ Indiana State College (Terre Haute) operates a special English Curriculum Consultation Service under which teachers may arrange for curriculum consultation by correspondence or interview, for special inservice courses and conferences, and for selected publications.⁹ To encourage better understanding of the problems of other schools, some universities appoint visiting instructors from public institutions. At the University of California, Berkeley, a junior college teacher of English serving as a visiting lecturer was given time to confer with department members about the teaching of English in the public junior college. At the University of Illinois, a high school English teacher was appointed for the same purpose. At Indiana University, a full-time curriculum consultant in English is made available to the schools of the state.

The Portland High School Study, initiated in 1958 by the presidents of nine colleges and universities in Oregon at the request of the Portland School Board, extensively used outside consultants. The study embraced the total curricular program for college-bound students in ten Portland high schools and was conducted on a systematic basis over a two-year period by about fifty subject matter specialists. The specialists met continually with teachers and administrators, visited schools and classrooms,

⁸ Harris, Wilson describes the Illinois program in "The Elimination of Remedial English at Illinois," *College Composition and Communication*, XII: 2 (May, 1961), 70-73. A more complete account by Charles W. Roberts is presented in the October, 1959, issue of *Illinois Educational Press Bulletin* under the title "Getting Together on English Composition."

⁹ For further information on such programs, see "High School-College Liaison Programs: Sponsors, Patterns, and Problems," a report by the NCTE Committee on High School-College Articulation, *English Journal*, LI (February, 1962), 85-93.

and invited professional educators to participate in many deliberations.¹⁰

The structure of the Portland project may be of particular interest. Chief consultants were appointed for each of six major subjects—literature; English language, composition, and speech; history and social studies; foreign languages; mathematics; and science. Special committees also studied such problems as the use of the library and the teaching of English in the content fields. Each consultant was released from academic responsibilities for a college semester, or its equivalent, and each was supported by a team of assistant consultants who were released for two weeks or longer. Although the subject matter specialists were primarily responsible for the final reports, committees of teachers met periodically with the consultant staff and served as liaison between the study group and other teachers in the schools. Moreover, at the end of the first school year, a selected committee of forty-one teachers met with the consultants for two weeks to review preliminary reports and to offer suggestions and recommendations. The entire project was financed by a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education.

Some indication of the thoroughness of the study is indicated by the following description of the consultants at work:

Consultants were left to their own devices in the Study, and they followed different procedures. All of them, however, spent a good deal of time in the classrooms. They visited classes, talked with principals and other administrators, talked with students, met with teachers individually and in groups, studied syllabuses, reviewed student papers, and examined textbooks. Some of them haunted faculty lounges listening to teachers' problems and suggestions; a few distributed questionnaires to teachers in their subjects; one consultant taught a ninth grade class for three days to see what some of the problems were; all of them consumed quantities of staff-meeting coffee and learned a good deal about school cafeterias. They also learned a good deal about the high school curriculum.

In addition, the consultants spent much of their time working in the Study office, discussing problems of the Study with one another,

¹⁰ The study and recommendations are summarized in Albert R. Kitzhaber, Robert M. Gorrell, and Paul Roberts, *Education for College* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1961).

reading reports about curricula in other schools and studying recommendations from national authorities or associations, and organizing notes. They met formally about once a week for half a day. At special meetings they discussed with national authorities problems of selecting and teaching gifted children and problems in advanced placement. At other meetings they heard reports from consultants who had been sent to examine educational experiments in other parts of the country. They also discussed with colleagues on their own campuses relations between the college and the high school program.

In June, 1959, the consultants prepared preliminary reports. These reports were duplicated for detailed discussion and criticism in the August reviewing meetings with teachers and administrators. Then the reports were extensively revised again and produced as the thirteen volumes of the Study. . . .¹¹

Insofar as the work of the Portland Schools was concerned, the work of the consultants did not end when the revised recommendations were submitted to the Board of Education. Rather, the directors of the project recognized, even with extensive participation of teachers and administrators in the study, that many recommendations could not be put into effect until teachers were more adequately prepared in the subjects. For example, the consultants suggested seven topics on language for inclusion in the high school English program: the nature of language and the development of logic, English grammar, lexicography and semantics, English sounds and intonation, American dialects, the history of the English language, and the nature of correctness in speech and writing.¹² Many English teachers in Portland were insufficiently informed about these topics to offer appropriate instruction. Therefore, in language and in many other subject areas, the recommendations of the consultants led to the formation of a series of summer institutes for Portland teachers. These institutes, again sponsored by the presidents of the state's colleges, were offered during 1961 and 1962 in the areas of greatest need. Thus, the consultants not only presented recommendations but also assumed some responsibility for seeing that their recommendations could be applied in the classrooms.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 31-32.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 84.

PARTICIPATION IN WORKSHOPS

Workshops may be an especially helpful means of inservice education. Jewett reports in his survey of courses of study that nearly one-fifth of the state and local courses of study he examined were started or developed in workshops.¹³ The states of Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, Nebraska, and Virginia used workshops in planning and developing their state language arts bulletins. Among local school systems which have produced language arts guides and courses of study in workshops are Austin, Texas; Tulsa, Oklahoma; Richmond County, Georgia; Gary, Indiana; Baltimore, Maryland; and Dearborn, Michigan.

Jewett found the following activities typical in workshops:

Identifying local and national needs of children and youth in the language arts

Reviewing research in reading, spelling, and language

Studying adolescent interests and learning processes

Skimming and reading books for children and adolescents

Setting up aims

Developing scope and sequence charts for language and reading

Preparing resource and teaching units

Developing courses of study.

In many parts of the country, workshops are held during the summer vacation—sometimes at a local school, sometimes at school department headquarters, sometimes at a college or university. Some school systems give credit for workshop attendance which may be counted on salary schedules toward increments; some systems allow a stipend to teachers for attendance.

The state of Vermont extensively uses summer workshops to improve curriculum and instruction. Designated as the Vermont Field Workshop Program and sponsored by the state director of teacher education and certification, the program has a number of notable features.¹⁴

¹³ Jewett, Arno, *English Language Arts in American High Schools* (Washington: U. S. Dept. of HEW, 1958), p. 7.

¹⁴ For details of the program the writers are indebted to correspondence from Newton H. Baker, director of teacher education and certification, State of Vermont Department of Education, Montpelier.

The program serves many teachers. During a recent summer, over forty per cent of the teachers of Vermont attended forty-one different workshops. Fifty per cent of all elementary teachers in the state participated.

Workshops are accessible to teachers. They are located throughout the state, sometimes in the larger cities and sometimes in the smallest towns. Any teacher, therefore, may attend a workshop without being put to the expense of traveling or living away from home.

The topics of the workshops are subjects on which teachers wish most to work. Each workshop is initiated because a local group of teachers asks for it. A superintendent and his teachers, or the teachers alone, select the topic they wish to study. The superintendent notifies the state director of teacher education and certification of the topic, time, and meeting place desired. A school superintendent usually offers facilities of his school system for meetings and furnishes secretarial help. During a recent summer, five workshops—four on motivation of learning and one on the English language arts—were conducted for grades 1 through 12. Four were for secondary school teachers; the fifth was for elementary school teachers. Among specific topics were the following: individualizing instruction in reading, reading in elementary school, elementary school language arts, world issues, unit teaching, developing and maintaining cumulative records, and the classroom teacher's role in guidance.

Workshop directors are selected among outstanding persons in the northeastern part of the United States and nationally known workshop leaders. In some cases the staff includes a librarian and two to five assistants to the director, depending upon enrollment, which may vary from fifty to approximately one hundred.

Workshop participants may earn academic credit through a special arrangement with teachers colleges. After a director has been secured, the presidents of the state teachers colleges appraise the application for each workshop. When approved, a two-week workshop carries two semester hours of undergraduate credit.

The schools of Oak Ridge, Tennessee, have, for a number of years, provided time during the school year for activities of the workshop and of the curriculum committee. The teachers in

Oak Ridge are hired for a teaching year of 200 days instead of 180 days. An eight-day workshop held each year in the fall before school opens provides time for both interdepartmental and instructional area groups to meet, free from the pressure of immediate classroom responsibilities. One Saturday a month for eight months is set aside for group meetings on the curriculum, for which teachers are allowed five days of work credit. A weekly faculty meeting after school accounts for two other days of teacher time. A five-day workshop at the end of the school year provides more time for meetings of the curriculum committee and for other meetings.

In 1960 the National Council of Teachers of English inaugurated special preconvention workshops and study groups. The three-day conferences, held immediately before the annual conference in November, permit teachers, supervisors, and college instructors to meet in small groups to consider special problems. Such topics have been considered as developing an articulated English program, the teaching of composition, language and linguistics in school programs, and new developments in elementary English. Experienced leaders and consultants are appointed to work with each group. Many school districts throughout the country release teachers to attend these preconvention sessions.

COURSES AND SEMINARS

Large city school systems offer inservice short courses. Many of these give either professional credit toward salary increments or official recognition for promotions. Course catalogs include such titles as The Language Program, Improving Written Expression, Creative Dramatics, Teaching Reading in the Middle Grades. The number of sessions varies from one to fifteen consecutive weekly meetings.

These formal courses keep teachers abreast of current educational thinking and promising practices in the subject area. Since enrollment in these courses is voluntary, the impact on the improvement of teaching in a school community depends upon how many teachers avail themselves of these opportunities and

how teachers actually use the new ideas in the classroom. The major cities of the country, such as New York, Minneapolis, Seattle, Newark, Milwaukee, and Philadelphia, have developed large-scale programs.

Immediately after the public school year closes in June, the Tulsa, Oklahoma, Public Schools and the University of Tulsa cosponsor the two-week Tulsa Education Conference. Participation, which is voluntary, earns two inservice credits or two graduate credits from the University of Tulsa. To determine enrollment and interest areas, the conference director early in the year sends a questionnaire to Tulsa area teachers. Demand usually calls for two or more sections in elementary language arts and at least one in secondary. Typical areas have been children's literature, reading in both the elementary and the secondary school, elementary and secondary speech, elementary language instruction, and secondary language arts. Each section is conducted as an intensive short course. Daily assemblies give all participants a chance to hear all visiting instructors, who either lecture or appear on panels or in symposiums.¹⁵

The Mt. Pleasant School District near Wilmington, Delaware, offered an optional course in creative writing in the elementary school. Eighteen teachers from four elementary schools took the course. The school board paid their expenses. The six meetings included the following topics:

- The role of creative writing in a language arts program
- Creating an environment which stimulates creative writing
- Having fun with words
- When children write for a purpose
- When tools are important in creative writing
- Planning creative writing opportunities in the total curriculum.¹⁶

Many colleges and universities offer courses and seminars during the school year and summer sessions intended to help im-

¹⁵ From information received from Dorothy Knappenberger, supervisor of language arts in secondary schools, Tulsa Public Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

¹⁶ From information received from Muriel Crosby, assistant superintendent and director of elementary education, Wilmington Public Schools, Wilmington, Delaware.

prove instruction in public schools. In some localities the flexibility of course planning is limited by shortsighted local policies which permit only graduate level credit to be accepted toward salary increment. Because colleges and universities hesitate to admit to graduate courses teachers who lack substantial undergraduate education in a subject or to give graduate credit for introductory courses, teachers who majored in education are forced into more education courses. An elementary teacher may be unable to enroll in an introductory course in the English language, even though this course may help advance his understanding about English. Similarly, a nonmajor teacher assigned English classes in the high school may not get credit from his school board for an undergraduate course in English. In most cases, closer cooperation between local boards of education who accept credit and college administrators who plan courses can lead to a desirable solution.¹⁷

Federal and foundation grants in aid could accomplish for English what those of the National Science Foundation and the National Defense Education Act have done in science and mathematics. Such funds could release university staff members to work with public school teachers and finance teachers for reciprocal participation in an inservice project similar to the School Mathematics Study Group under the direction of E. G. Begle.¹⁸ One phase of this project, for example, has been devoted to writing experimental textbooks in mathematics, with a view to revising the public school curriculum. The textbooks are being tested experimentally in various parts of the nation by groups of teachers from different grades—each working with a college mathematics teacher. Project funds pay teachers for the time involved outside of their regular work. Writing textbooks by groups of teachers working with scholars in a field can bring

¹⁷ "A Graduate Program for Teachers" is a statewide program sponsored by the state institutions of higher education in Wisconsin. The plan enables teachers to take courses in subject matter and in professional education most directly related to their teaching assignments. It accommodates especially those who have been out of college many years or have not had the usual prerequisites in subjects they wish to study.

¹⁸ Formerly of Yale University, Professor Begle and the SMSG project are now at Stanford University.

about significant curricular changes, especially when teachers test experimental versions of a textbook and suggest practical revisions.

Summer institutes for teachers of secondary school English were sponsored by the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board at twenty host universities during the summer of 1962. About forty-five selected teachers attended each institute to study graduate English courses in language, literature, and composition. To prepare for the institutes, three instructors from each of the twenty institutions attended a special three-week training session during the summer of 1961, an inservice education project for the instructors themselves. This session produced syllabi to guide the courses taught during 1962. A group of high school teachers studied and reacted to the programs developed during the training institute.

The plans for the 1962 institutes contained several noteworthy features. In admitting teachers to the institutes, universities gave preference to those whose principals permitted them to introduce new procedures and content into their high schools. In addition, each host university released for half time during the fall semester a member of the English department to work with teachers in the schools. The CEEB Commission on English plans to summarize the results of the twenty institutes in a volume that will contain sample English curricula and tests for college-bound students.

Another national program of significance to secondary teachers of English is the John Hay Fellows Program which provides selected teachers with a year's study in the humanities.¹⁹ The teachers, whose salaries and expenses are paid by the John Hay Program, are expected to return to their schools to improve instruction in the humanities. During 1960-61, John Hay fellows attended programs at Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Northwestern, the University of Chicago, and the University of California. The John Hay Program also provides a summer institute in the humanities for fifty additional teachers and administrators.

Summer school courses, extended-day classes, and extension courses contribute indirectly to improvement of instruction. Com-

¹⁹ Information about these programs is available from the John Hay Fellows Program, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York.

monly teachers take courses for such private purposes as qualifying for a credential, obtaining an advanced degree, or acquiring units for an increase in salary. These courses can make more vital contributions to inservice education under cooperative planning. Both the University of Illinois and the University of Chicago have instituted programs in which school systems and the universities work together in planning field services and courses to be offered. The University of Illinois Curriculum Program, which developed many units and teaching materials, was a cooperative endeavor involving school systems, the university, and the state department of education.

The curriculum project in Georgia is another example of cooperation among the State Department of Education, the College of Education, University of Georgia, the Georgia Center for Continuing Education, and the Georgia Council of Teachers of English. Boston University carries on a research program in the public schools of Boston, both to relate advanced university work more closely to classroom instructional problems and to provide inservice education for the teachers in the cooperating schools.

The California Social Studies program is an example of a state department, public and private colleges and universities, county and local school systems, and professional organizations working together to promote curricular improvement through summer workshops, summer session courses, regional conferences, and extension service courses. Cooperative planners of summer session and extension courses can include college English, speech, and education departments and local school superintendents and curriculum directors.

CONFERENCES AND LECTURES

Special two- to five-day conferences at colleges and universities give teachers an opportunity to hear national authorities and to review results of recent research. The summer reading conferences at Claremont College (California) and the University of Chicago have been established for many years. Indiana University has sponsored a language arts conference for elementary teachers and has added a conference for high school teachers. Similar meet-

ings are becoming popular elsewhere. Often the conferences are cosponsored by a professional subject matter organization, as is the annual summer English conference which the Notre Dame English Association schedules at South Bend. Competent authorities give a series of talks on selected teaching problems and answer questions from the group. Frequently separate sections are planned for elementary, junior high, senior high, and college teachers. Some institutions will schedule a short conference during a longer workshop so that teachers who are unable to attend the complete workshop session can still hear visiting specialists. Thus a two-day conference on reading at Drake University was part of a longer two-week workshop on reading problems.

A variation on the conference plan appears in the University of Michigan's summer lecture series on the teaching of English. Every Monday afternoon for eight weeks, a distinguished local teacher or outside specialist speaks on a pertinent topic. The University of California, Berkeley, instituted a similar series in which members of the Department of English engage in weekly public discussions of teaching problems. At both Ann Arbor and Berkeley, teachers from the surrounding areas are invited to attend. Weekly lectures on the teaching of English have been sponsored annually by Western Reserve University and the Greater Cleveland Council of Teachers of English. The Cleveland series occurs during the academic year.

Yale University sponsors conferences as part of its Master of Arts in Teaching Program. Annually since 1955, the Yale Conference on the Teaching of English has brought together high school and college teachers of English. In addition to hearing lectures on teaching problems, working committees of selected teachers prepare special reports on teaching problems in language, composition, and literature. The working committees appointed for each conference meet periodically throughout the year to draw together their ideas for both oral and written reports. Selected reports and speeches from the Yale Conferences were published by the National Council of Teachers of English.²⁰

²⁰ Edward J. Gordon and Edward S. Noyes, eds., *Essays on the Teaching of English* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1960).

Advanced Placement Programs. Advanced Placement Programs have become so widespread that they deserve special mention for their impact on inservice education. The number of high school students enrolled in such programs has increased annually; in 1960 more than 890 schools, 567 colleges, and 10,500 students participated in the program.²¹ The programs contribute to the inservice growth of teachers by providing for closer coordination between high school teachers and college instructors and by providing high school teachers with an opportunity to teach advanced courses in English. The study of materials on the national program provided in the "Acorn Book" of the Advanced Placement Program²² and participation at the annual summer Advanced Placement Conference further stimulate the practicing teacher.

One of the more ambitious programs for Advanced Placement was developed by the Pittsburgh schools and the Carnegie Institute of Technology and is supported by the Fund for the Advancement of Education and by the A. W. Mellon Educational and Charitable Trust. In a teacher exchange program a Carnegie English professor and history professor each taught a section of the high school Advanced Placement course, and a high school teacher in each of the subjects taught basic courses in the college. In the summer institute high school and college teachers could study together the materials and methods of the Advanced Placement course devised by a joint planning committee. The college-school district cooperation continued through the year. The program began in four high schools; ten schools from the neighboring county were added during the second summer. Even with the expansion, the high school and college teachers continued to meet regularly every two or three weeks. Those who worked on the project have this to say about its impact:

Cooperative planning by high school and college teachers produced courses which "taught" well; we believe that the courses would not have been as good if either group had planned them separately. Attending the Advanced Placement Conferences was an indispensable introduction to the program for teachers who had no

²¹ *The College Board Today* (New York: CEEB, 1961).

²² *Advanced Placement Program Syllabus* (New York: CEEB, 1960).

previous experience with AP. The twenty-day Summer Institute, although it could not take the place of graduate work, was an excellent refresher course for some teachers and an exciting introduction to new techniques of teaching and new interpretations of subject for others. The teacher exchange benefited both college and high school by developing mutual understanding of each other's problems and mutual respect for each other's accomplishments. Finally the year-round contact between college professor and high school teacher helped to assure that college standards would be maintained after the direct influence of the Summer Institute had waned.²³

RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENTATION

Research Methods in the Language Arts, a bulletin of the National Conference on Research in English, describes two separate and distinct levels of research aiding the educational program: "At one level the classroom teacher tries out a new idea or technique, evaluates the results, and keeps records of the experiment. At another level the research specialist notes the findings, forms a hypothesis, and proceeds to test that hypothesis as rigorously as he knows how. It is apparent that one level is as important as the other, since the second relies so obviously on the first."²⁴

Inservice education can help the classroom teacher and the school system plan simple research projects.

. . . this simple kind of research can be expanded as individual teachers become research-minded. Another teacher in the same school system may become interested in a direct comparison of method. Cooperative research across a whole school, or school system, is an excellent way to broaden the base of a study. A mutual project in which two or more teachers who teach in different

²³ Edwin Fenton, Albert W. George, Robert C. Slack, Diantha W. Riddle, *College High School Cooperation: Instituting the Advanced Placement Program in Pittsburgh* (Pittsburgh, Pa.: Carnegie Institute of Technology and the Pittsburgh Public Schools, 1961), pp. 43-44.

²⁴ Singleton, Carlton, ed., *Research Methods in the Language Arts*, prepared by the National Conference on Research in English and published by the NCTE (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1962). This booklet names some areas needing research and gives specific techniques for setting up projects.

schools may try an idea together but on differing populations can be valuable. The cooperation of a university in broadening a project by enlisting other teachers and by providing statistical and technical aid can turn a simple study into an extremely important guidepost to the mysteries of the teaching-learning process.²⁵

With many areas of the elementary curriculum needing study and experimentation, city systems can designate certain schools as pilot schools to work on specific aspects of the educational program. Teachers have the opportunity to focus on one phase of the many sided program which makes up the elementary school day.

When the Milwaukee Public Schools began a study of the language arts in the elementary schools, they limited the project in several respects. First, they focused on written expression—creative and functional writing—since this phase of the language arts program concerned the teachers. Second, they confined the study to only eight of the 113 elementary schools. Each school staff considered separately the invitation to join this study and made its own decision on participation.

The eight schools invited to join the study were chosen because they were schools not already involved in another major enterprise, schools that represent different kinds of school communities, schools of different size, or schools with varying leadership potential.

Several purposes were to be served by this study, namely: improving practices in teaching creative and functional writing; seeing how a staff works to solve a problem or move a project ahead; discovering more effective ways of principals' and supervisors' giving leadership to improvement of the language arts instructional program.

A national program of research and curriculum development called Project English was launched in 1961 by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to provide for extensive research in English teaching, to develop demonstration centers in various regions of the country to try out new materials and ideas; and to call a series of national conferences and seminars on im-

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 37.

portant teaching problems. The Project should contribute to the inservice growth of many teachers. Related to Project English may ultimately be a program of federally supported institutes on the teaching of English, similar to those authorized in the modern languages under provisions of the National Defense Education Act of 1958. Some states have developed institutes of their own.

TELEVISION, KINESCOPES, AND FILM

Closed circuit television, kinescope recording, and other visual and auditory media can demonstrate effective teaching or present illustrated lectures. By allowing interruption for interpretation and discussion, filmed resources have an advantage over direct classroom observation or personal lecture.

Supervisors in the New York City schools have used kinescopes extensively. For example, during 1960-61, they offered eight courses in different districts on the teaching of English in grades 7, 8, 9. Supervisors responsible for the courses planned the sequence of study and selected appropriate kinescopes in consultation with the district language arts coordinator. Inservice classes received television manuals for each kinescope. The kinescopes were also used for demonstrations at many district and departmental conferences.²⁶

A series of kinescopes illustrating the unit method of teaching English has been developed at the University High School of the University of Minnesota. Several kinescopes illustrate initiating activities in a unit, several depict developmental and culminating activities, and a number deal exclusively with the teaching of skills within the thematic unit. The kinescopes are to be used in both preservice and inservice education. The University of Minnesota has also developed kinescopes on the supervision of student teachers (for the inservice education of supervising teachers) and, in preparation, a series on the implications of descriptive linguistics for elementary and secondary education.²⁷

²⁶ For further information, write Anita Dore, Language Arts Coordinator, Division of Junior High Schools, New York City Public Schools, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York.

²⁷ Additional information about the Minnesota kinescopes is available from Stanley Kegler, College of Education, University of Minnesota.

Kinescopes on the teaching of language, literature, and composition are available from the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board. These films present outstanding high school and college teachers who discuss content and methodology.²⁸

An English curriculum project at the University High School of the University of Illinois developed a different type of film. The actual classroom teaching of a distinguished teacher, Louis Zahner, was filmed over a period of several weeks. The most valuable segments from all of the films were clipped together to form a forty-minute film on the teaching of language and composition entitled "Point of View."²⁹

Not all inservice projects are so elaborate. The English faculty of the Demonstration Secondary School of the University of California prepared a filmstrip on the thematic unit which has been used with experienced teachers as well as student teachers.³⁰ The Audiovisual Department of the Los Angeles Schools produced a filmstrip on "Good Methods of Teaching English" with a recorded commentary. The combined filmstrip and recording are used at conferences and meetings to illustrate how the teaching of language skills may be interrelated in an eighth grade English classroom.³¹

The use of television in preservice education has been confined mostly to the presentation of demonstrations or special panels and lectures. More important in continuing programs of inservice education, however, is the increasing use of television instruction of students in the regular classroom. According to one report in 1960, 550 school districts and 110 colleges were involved in television courses, and in 1961-1962 the number was increased by the 569 public schools and 117 colleges and universities utilizing the Midwest Airborne Television Project at Purdue

²⁸ Commission on English, CEEB, 687 Boylston Street, Boston 16, Massachusetts.

²⁹ For additional information, write David Jackson, Principal, University High School, University of Illinois.

³⁰ Information is available from Mrs. Maurine Hardin, Librarian, Oakland Technical High School, Oakland, California.

³¹ Write the Division of Secondary Education and the Audiovisual Section, Division of Instructional Services, Los Angeles City Schools.

University.³² Not only the students receive the impact of this instruction. A fifth grade teacher in a rural Indiana school who observes the weekly language arts program telecast from Purdue may gain new insights into the content and method of such teaching. The extent to which television programs intended for students can awaken teachers to new appreciation of subject was vividly demonstrated by the humanities films produced by the Council for the Humanities on Television. The filmed, illustrated lectures by scholars which began with *Our Town*, *Oedipus the King*, and *Hamlet* have been equally popular in high school classrooms and at conferences of teachers.³³

PROFESSIONAL LIBRARIES

Professional libraries have major importance in programs of inservice education. They may be in single schools, in local school systems, in a university or college, or in a state department of education. They may contain books on methods and curriculum problems, textbooks, books in subject fields which have special pertinence to instruction, pamphlets and periodicals, book lists, courses of study, instructional units, and in some cases, audio-visual aids. Sometimes the professional library is part of a curriculum materials center or curriculum "laboratory" designed to give considerable assistance to teachers and curriculum workers. The library of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, for example, contains an outstanding collection of courses of study and a children's and youth's book center in which books are evaluated and content analyzed according to categories that would be especially helpful to teachers planning teaching units in English.

The professional library of the Oakland, California, schools, like many others in the country, assists teachers in selecting text-

³² Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction, Memorial Center, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.

³³ For further information about the Council for the Humanities on Television, write its director, Floyd Rinker, 687 Boylston Street, Boston 16, Massachusetts. The films, produced under a grant from the Fund for Education, are now distributed by the Encyclopaedia Britannica Company, Wilmette, Illinois.

books by maintaining a collection and by preparing exhibits of latest texts, teaching manuals, and handbooks. The library implements the whole process of textbook adoption. It helps the libraries of the individual schools in Oakland by enabling teachers to examine new books, especially those for supplementary and voluntary reading programs. It materially assists teachers to provide for differences of reading ability among students and helps them select materials that will develop reading skills.

The extensive county curriculum laboratory in San Diego County, California, classifies books according to the unit topics of the curriculum and to their level of reading difficulty. Teachers can examine books on display, listen to talks by librarians, and sign out books for unit teaching.

The curriculum materials center at San Jose State College, California, which is part of the Education Division Section of the college library, provides instructional and curriculum materials and a juvenile book collection and textbook collection for teachers. It contains an extensive library of recorded literature and provides planning and conference rooms.

While large professional libraries and curriculum materials centers perform important functions for inservice education, the small professional library of a school should not be minimized. Because books and pamphlets are most likely to be read when close at hand, a school can easily contribute to teachers' ideas by making readily available to the faculty even a few of these materials: courses of study, significant pamphlets, contemporary books of literature, contemporary magazines, recent research monographs or newly published paperback books, good reading lists of children's or adolescent's books, book sections of Sunday newspapers, the *Book Review Digest*, and copies of contemporary weekly or monthly reviews and magazines dealing with the teaching of English. Informal browsing often leads to good ideas for the classroom.

The following lists suggest a *minimum* library on which any elementary school or secondary school English department can build. No attempt is made in these lists to include courses of study or many of the helpful pamphlets on English published each year. However, the lists do provide a beginning for the school

principal or department head who wishes to make available to teachers a shelf of helpful, authoritative references.

**A MINIMAL PROFESSIONAL REFERENCE LIBRARY
ON THE LANGUAGE ARTS FOR ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL TEACHERS**

(Suggested only as a basic list of minimum essentials to which schools may add titles as funds become available)

PROFESSIONAL JOURNALS

Subscription to *Elementary English* and to one or two other journals which regularly feature articles on aspects of the language arts, such as *The Reading Teacher* or *Education*.

Subscription to the journal of the state English association.

**THE CURRICULUM SERIES OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL
OF TEACHERS IN ENGLISH**

The English Language Arts. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1952. (Perspective on the total English program)

Language Arts for Today's Children. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954.

**GENERAL BOOKS ON METHODS OF TEACHING
ABOUT CURRICULUM IN THE LANGUAGE ARTS**

Three or four basic books, such as:

Dawson, Mildred A., and Zollinger, Marian. *Guiding Language Learning*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1957.

Greene, Harry A., and Petty, Walter T. *Developing Language Skills in the Elementary School*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959.

Herrick, Virgil E., and Jacobs, Leland B., eds. *Children and the Language Arts*. New York: Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955.

Strickland, Ruth G. *Language Arts in the Elementary School*, Second Edition. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1957.

Watts, A. F. *The Language and Mental Development of Children*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1948.

SPECIALIZED BOOKS AND REFERENCES

One or two reference books in each area, such as:

in Reading:

- DeBoer, John J., and Dallmann, Martha. *The Teaching of Reading*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960.
- Harris, A. J. *How to Increase Reading Ability*, Fourth Edition. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1961.
- Russell, David H. *Children Learn to Read*, Second Edition. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1961.
- Veatch, Jeannette. *Individualizing Your Reading Program*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959.

in Writing and Speaking:

- Applegate, Mauree. *Helping Children Write*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954.
- Burrows, Alvina T. *They All Want to Write: Written English in the Elementary School*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952.
- Burrows, Alvina T., et al. *Children's Writing: Research in Composition and Related Skills*. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1961.
- Lease, Ruth, and Siks, Geraldine Brain. *Creative Dramatics in Home, School, Community*. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1952.
- Ogilvie, Mardel. *Speech in the Elementary School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939.
- Ward, Winifred. *Play Making with Children, From Kindergarten through the Junior High School*, Revised Edition. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.
- When Children Write*, Bulletin No. 95, ACEI. Washington: Association for Childhood Education International, 1954.

in Language, Grammar, and Usage:

- Allen, Harold B., ed. *Readings in Applied English Linguistics*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1958.
- Hildreth, Gertrude. *Teaching Spelling*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1955.
- Pooley, Robert C. *Teaching English Grammar*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.

———. *Teaching English Usage*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1946.

in Literature:

Arbuthnot, May Hill. *Children and Books*, Revised Edition. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1957.

Arnstein, Flora J. *Adventure into Poetry*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1951.

———. *Poetry in the Elementary Classroom*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1962.

Larrick, Nancy. *A Teacher's Guide to Children's Literature*. Columbus, O.: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1960.

Meigs, Cornelia, et al. *A Critical History of Children's Literature*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953.

AIDS FOR SELECTING BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

Two or three recent annotated book lists, such as:

A Basic Book Collection for the Elementary Grades. American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11, Illinois.

A Bibliography of Books for Children. Association for Childhood Education International, 1200 15th Street, N. W., Washington 5, D.C.

Adventuring with Books. National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

Books for Beginning Readers. National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

A MINIMAL PROFESSIONAL REFERENCE LIBRARY FOR TEACHERS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL ENGLISH

(Suggested as a basic list of minimum essentials to which schools may add titles as funds become available)

PROFESSIONAL JOURNALS

Subscription to the *English Journal*.

Subscription to the journal of the state English association if one is published, e.g., *Kentucky English Bulletin*, the *North Carolina English Teacher*, the *English Leaflet*, the *English Record*, the *Illinois English Bulletin*, the *Wisconsin English Journal*.

Additional subscriptions to two or three other journals which regu-

larly feature articles on English of interest to the secondary school teacher, such as *College English*, *College Composition and Communication*, *The Reading Teacher*, *Studies in the Mass Media*.

THE CURRICULUM SERIES OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL
OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

The English Language Arts. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1952.

The English Language Arts in the Secondary School. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956.

GENERAL BOOKS ABOUT CURRICULUM AND METHODOLOGY
IN SECONDARY ENGLISH

Three or four recent books, such as:

Bernstein, Abraham. *Teaching English in High School*. New York: Random House, 1962.

Fowler, J. H. *The Art of Teaching English*. London, Eng.: Macmillan and Company Ltd., 1949.

Gordon, Edward, and Noyes, Edward S., eds. *Essays on the Teaching of English*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1960.

Holbrook, David. *English for Maturity*. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press, 1961.

Hook, J. N. *The Teaching of High School English*, Revised Edition. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958.

Jewett, Arno. *English Language Arts in American High Schools*. Washington: Bulletin No. 13, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1958.

LaBrant, Lou. *We Teach English*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1951.

Loban, Walter; Ryan, Margaret; and Squire, James R. *Teaching Language and Literature*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1961.

Sauer, Edwin H. *English in the Secondary School*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961.

Stone, George Winchester, Jr., ed. *Issues, Problems, and Approaches in the Teaching of English*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961.

Weiss, M. Jerry. *An English Teacher's Reader*. New York: Odyssey Press, 1962.

SPECIALIZED BOOKS AND REFERENCES

One or two reference books in each area, such as:

in Reading:

Bamman, Henry A.; Hogan, Ursula; and Green, Charles E. *Reading Instruction in the Secondary School*. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1961.

DeBoer, John J., and Dallmann, Martha. *The Teaching of Reading*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960.

Gunn, M. Agnella, ed. *What We Know about High School Reading*. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1958.

Jewett, Arno, ed. *Improving Reading in the Junior High School*. Washington: Bulletin No. 10, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1957.

Strang, Ruth, and Bracken, Dorothy Kendall. *Making Better Readers*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1957.

Strang, Ruth; McCullough, Constance; and Traxler, Arthur. *Problems in the Improvement of Reading*, Second Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955.

in Composition, Speech, and Related Skills:

Bennett, Robert A., ed. *Speech in the English Classroom*, A Portfolio of Articles. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1962.

Hook, J. N. *Guide to Good Writing*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1962.

Mearns, Hughes. *Creative Power*. New York: Dover Publications, Inc., 1958.

Selected chapters in the methods books, especially Chapters 10 and 11 in LaBrant; Chapter 9 in Hook; pp. 61-202 in Gordon and Noyes; Chapter X in Loban, Ryan, and Squire; and Chapter IX in *The English Language Arts in the Secondary Schools*.

One or two pamphlets containing suggestions for grading compositions, such as:

Ward, William S., ed. "Principles and Standards in Composition for Kentucky High Schools," *Kentucky English Bulletin*, Fall, 1956-57.

Grose, Lois M.; Miller, Dorothy; and Steinberg, Erwin. *Evaluating Junior High School Themes*. Association of English Teachers of Western Pennsylvania, n. d.

California Association of Teachers of English. *A Scale for Evaluating High School Student Essays*. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1960.

(These booklets on evaluation are available from the National Council of Teachers of English.)

One or two handbooks to English style, such as:

Brooks, Cleanth, and Warren, R. P. *Modern Rhetoric*, Second Edition. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1958.

Perrin, Porter G. *Writer's Guide and Index to English*, Third Edition. Chicago: Scott, Foresman, and Company, 1959.

in Language:

Allen, Harold B., ed. *Readings in Applied English Linguistics*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1958.

Baugh, Albert C. *A History of the English Language*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.

Francis, W. Nelson. *The Structure of American English*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958.

Gleason, H. A., Jr. *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics*, Revised Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961.

Laird, Charlton M., and Gorrell, Robert M., eds. *English as Language: Backgrounds, Development, Usage*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1961.

Pooley, Robert C. *Teaching English Usage*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1946.

Sledd, James. *A Short Introduction to English Grammar*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1959.

Representative textbooks for secondary students which illustrate new approaches to language teaching such as:

Roberts, Paul. *English Sentences*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1962.

LaBrant, Lou, et al. *Your Language*. Vol. V. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960.

At least one authoritative dictionary of usage, such as:

Fowler, H. W. *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, Revised Edition. Oxford, Eng.: Cambridge Press, 1927.

Evans, Bergen, and Evans, Cornelia. *A Dictionary of Contemporary American Usage*. New York: Random House, 1957.

Nicholson, Margaret. *A Dictionary of American-English Usage*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1957.

in Literature:

Burton, Dwight L. *Literature Study in the High School*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1959.

Leary, Lewis, ed. *Contemporary Literary Scholarship*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1958.

Millet, Fred B. *Reading Drama. Reading Fiction. Reading Poetry*. All from New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1950.

Selected chapters in the methods books, especially Chapters 5, 6, 7 in Hook; Chapters VI, VII, VIII in Loban, Ryan, and Squire; Chapters 9-13 in Sauer; and Chapter V in *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*.

Rosenblatt, Louise. *Literature as Exploration*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1938.

Thomas, Cleveland A. "They Will Read Poetry," in *They Will Read Literature*. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1955.

Books on applied criticism and on separate literary forms such as: Booth, Wayne. *The Rhetoric of Fiction*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961.

Ciardi, John. *How Does a Poem Mean?* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960.

Brooks, Cleanth, and Warren, Robert Penn. *Understanding Fiction*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1960.

Drew, Elizabeth. *Poetry, A Modern Guide to Its Understanding and Enjoyment*. New York: Dell Publishing Company, Inc., 1959.

Brooks, Cleanth, and Warren, R. P. *Understanding Poetry*, Third Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960.

Richards, I. A. *Practical Criticism*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1939.

A glossary of literary terms such as:

Thrall, William F.; Hibbard, Addison; Holman, Hugh. *Handbook to Literature*. New York: Odyssey Press, 1960.

in Mass Media:

Boutwell William D., ed. *Using Mass Media in the Schools*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1962.

Postman, Neil, and the Committee on the Study of Television.

Television and the Teaching of English. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961.

O'Hara, Robert C. *Media for the Millions.* New York: Random House, 1961.

AIDS FOR SELECTING BOOKS FOR ADOLESCENTS

Two or three recent annotated book lists, such as:

A Basic Book Collection for High Schools, regularly revised. American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11, Illinois.

A Basic Book Collection for Junior High Schools, regularly revised. American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11, Illinois.

Books for the Teen Age, issued annually. New York Public Library, Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street, New York 18, New York.

Books for You, an annotated book list for the senior high school, periodically revised. National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

College and Adult Reading List of Books in Literature and the Fine Arts. New York: Washington Square Press, 1962.

Patterns in Reading. American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11, Illinois.

Your Reading, an annotated book list for the junior high school, periodically revised. National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

School librarians can assist with the inservice programs of a staff. They help teachers to conduct the reading skills program and pupils to develop sound reading interests and habits.

Jewett's survey led him to make the following statement:

Librarians helped in the preparation of only 20 percent of the local courses of study and 33 percent of the State teaching guides despite the fact that most language arts courses recommend extensive reading of books by pupils and also contain bibliographies of books for them.³⁴

Yet, many librarians welcome opportunities to help with inservice education. In a two-week summer workshop for teachers of English in the Eastside High School District of San Jose, California, the librarians of the district performed continuous

³⁴ Arno Jewett, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

consultant service. They met with teachers, prepared supplementary reading lists for units, evaluated books, prepared exhibits for different committees, explained an exhibit of newly acquired volumes, and classified the existing library collections of fiction and biography into difficult, average, and easy books.

SPECIAL OCCASIONS

Special occasions such as Book Week often become inservice education opportunities for English teachers. Libraries and professional organizations use Book Week as an occasion for special displays of books, for conferences, or for speakers. A week before Book Week the University of Minnesota sponsors an afternoon and evening session to give teachers an overview of new books for elementary and high school pupils. Usually at dinner a writer for elementary or high school readers speaks, recent books are displayed, and mimeographed guide lists of these books are distributed. The Hawaii Council of Teachers of English has also sponsored such a project.

TRAVEL

Many teachers find professional growth in travel to locales associated with regional or national literature. For this reason the National Council of Teachers of English has been sponsoring summer trips to Europe for teachers. These trips feature visits to literary landmarks, seminars and lectures on literary topics, and conferences with British teachers.

THE PROFESSIONAL SUBJECT MATTER ORGANIZATION

The professional subject matter organization can be significant in the inservice training of teachers. This chapter earlier mentioned the importance of *perspective* for the teacher. The English teacher who sees himself as a part of a total school program, a state program, and the program of the National Council of Teachers of English approaches full realization of his profes-

sional roles. Such perspective is in part a matter of orientation to one's profession, but it usually involves much more. The NCTE shares ideas of master teachers and curriculum specialists. Through its publications, it makes available to the individual teacher proposals for curriculum design, statements of objectives, suggestions for teaching materials, summaries of research, and descriptions of good teaching methods. A local school staff can find in the publications of the NCTE perhaps the best teaching suggestions available, based both on sound knowledge of subject matter and on sound pedagogical principles. The NCTE often promotes the writing and publication of the work of individual teachers or professional committees. These publications encourage the development of some uniformity in curriculum structure throughout the country without interfering with the autonomy of local groups.

A state or local affiliate of the NCTE can encourage the professional cooperation of all people and agencies with responsibility for inservice education of teachers. In such states as Alabama, Georgia, Nebraska, Oklahoma, and South Dakota, the state English associations recently have taken primary responsibility for marshalling resources and personnel to reorganize the state program in English. The following steps taken by the New York State English Council during the 1960-1961 school year illustrate appropriate action:

1. During October, 1960, the state council passed a resolution urging the upgrading of the vacant position of State Supervisor of English Education. Believing that strong state leadership by a qualified specialist was essential to a statewide program, the council called specifically for upgrading in position, salary, traveling expenses, number of associates, office space, and clerical help.
2. The resolution was sent to the State Commissioner of Education with a request for a personal interview. A special committee representing the state council conferred with the commissioner and his associates.
3. The conference with the commissioner led not only to an immediate implementation of certain recommendations, such as the addition of some assistance for the state supervisor, but resulted

in an invitation to the council to participate in a special state seminar on improving English in the state.

4. To assist the state department, the council agreed to prepare a position paper concerning the ways in which it believed that the state department might best exercise its leadership in the English field.
5. To prepare the paper, the executive secretary of the state council enlisted help from several standing committees and appointed several more. Each committee was asked to study with respect to New York several of the basic issues identified in the report *The Basic Issues in the Teaching of English*.³⁵ In addition recent recommendations from NCTE and CEEB were also considered.
6. Final recommendations were organized in a single paper listing priorities for action and were submitted for consideration by the State Department of Education in April, 1961.³⁶

Less comprehensive statewide projects also prove beneficial. The Kentucky Council of Teachers of English enlisted the participation of representatives from 21 high schools and 21 colleges in preparing a statement on principles and standards in teaching composition for use by teachers in the state.³⁷ The Kentucky State Department of Education distributed the bulletin throughout the state. Other statements of standards and goals for composition have been prepared by councils in California, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, and Western Pennsylvania.³⁸

A regional, state, or local association can also provide opportunities for discussion of teaching problems, free from the personal relationships and emotional involvements that may

³⁵ Definitions and clarifications presented by members of the American Studies Association, the College English Association, the Modern Language Association, and the National Council of Teachers of English, supplement to *College English*, *Elementary English*, and the *English Journal*, October, 1959. Available in reprint from NCTE, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

³⁶ Discussion is abstracted from the President's Report in the *English Record*, XI: 3 (Spring, 1961), 30-31.

³⁷ William S. Ward, ed., "Principles and Standards of Composition for Kentucky High Schools and Colleges," *Kentucky English Bulletin*, 6: 1 (Fall, 1956-57). Available from the NCTE.

³⁸ Copies of these bulletins are distributed by the NCTE, Champaign, Illinois.

prevent communication among teachers in their own schools. A change of setting provides an opportunity to think about a teaching problem in an environment different from one's own school and under conditions in which one's customary emotional defenses do not block understanding.

An effective discussion-type conference requires a limited attendance so that discussion groups can be limited to about twenty people. If discussion groups are to be effective, they must meet (with the same personnel, of course) for several sessions. Probably at least five sessions will be necessary for studying relatively complex problems. The one-hour discussion session, so characteristic of many conferences, is likely to be effective only if it follows some presentation to which conference participants can react. Unfocused discussion restricted to one hour allows people merely to air their problems without analyzing issues or arriving at solutions. Such an experience is frequently frustrating to teachers and often gives them a feeling that a conference has been a waste of time.

The Minneapolis Area Council of Teachers of English, an NCTE affiliate, has had success in series of meetings with subject matter authorities from the University of Minnesota and neighboring colleges to speak on curriculum content and hold discussions on necessary curriculum reorganization or new approaches in teaching methods.³⁹

If a regional association is to provide opportunities for discussion of instructional problems, the organization's program for inservice education must include some projects, committee assignments, and conferences. An example of a program of this kind is the Asilomar Conference of the Central California Council held in late September in Asilomar, Pacific Grove, California. While the board of directors of the council changes considerably from year to year, the membership of the Study Commission of the CCCTE, responsible for the annual Asilomar Conference, is relatively stable. It consists of the president and past president of the council; elementary, secondary, junior college, and college

³⁹ For further information, write Edna C. Downing, editor of the *Newsletter* of the Minneapolis Area Council of Teachers of English, 3935 Fremont Avenue North, Minneapolis 12, Minnesota.

teachers; instructors in English methods courses in the colleges and universities of the central California area, and the liaison officer of the National Council of Teachers of English. A member of the state department of education is invited to attend the meetings.

Participants in the Asilomar Conference discuss techniques, analyze teaching procedures and curricular practices, study the subject matter of English, and develop their capacities for teaching and leadership, particularly those of younger teachers of promise.

To plan the yearly conference at Asilomar requires professional insight and perspective. The conference chairman and often an assistant chairman are selected by the commission members at a meeting immediately after each conference. Plans for the next conference are carefully discussed at a weekend meeting of the Curriculum Commission in early January. By this time commission members have evaluated reactions of participants of the preceding conference and have secured the suggestions of many teachers. They select the theme or purpose for the conference, make tentative suggestions for section topics, make tentative decisions on major speakers or conference consultants, and appoint a planning committee. This committee sets up a tentative program and presents it to the entire commission—usually at least twice—for evaluation and criticism. The Commission members help search for teachers, administrators, supervisors, college instructors, or even lay people who might be key figures in the implementation of the conference program.

The major activity of the Asilomar Conference is the participation in the discussion sections, which meet five times between Friday evening and Sunday morning. In preparation, many participants read one or two recommended books. Because members are not permitted to change groups, discussion follows a sequence from limiting the problem to presenting teaching practices, analyzing and evaluating practices, and summarizing and recommending. Chairmen and members consider the discussion also as a learning sequence. Discussion sections have the usual chairmen, recorders, and resource persons. The practice over several years, however, has been not to designate resource

persons officially let teachers give up their role of thinking critically by deferring to a college or university staff member to whom the term "resource person" may give special status.

The main speakers or consultants facilitate the work of the discussion groups. A speaker may be invited to give a comprehensive keynote speech, to comment after visiting discussion sections, or to end the conference with an inspirational address.

The Asilomar Conference has developed a community of English teachers. As a follow-up of each fall Asilomar conference, the board of directors of the Central California Council sponsors two or three regional conferences in the spring—utilizing leadership and talent of teachers discovered at the Asilomar Conference. These local conferences may have an attendance of 100 to 500 or more teachers.

The NCTE's Conference on College Composition and Communication sponsors each spring a three-day meeting which features special discussion groups. Usually two or three of these groups concern themselves with high school-college articulation. For fifteen years, the independent Midwest English Conference has been held on college campuses throughout Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, and Missouri. This conference usually features a special theme and is organized in four or five discussion groups.

Many affiliates of the National Council of Teachers of English sponsor two-day and three-day conferences. For example, the Michigan English Council has instituted such an annual event at St. Mary's Lake. The Southern California Council of Teachers of English has started an annual weekend conference. The Arkansas, Minnesota, and Wisconsin councils also sponsor such meetings.

Many organizations sponsor one-day conferences for teachers of English, and some, such as the Illinois Association of Teachers of English, publish articles, book lists, and bibliographies written by their members.

A local school system is likely to profit most from the activities of a subject matter association if it promotes participation of its faculty members, including providing travel or conference expenses for some. An enlightened policy with respect to professional organizations is illustrated by the Denver Public Schools,

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which encourages faculty members to join voluntarily at least one organization and to contribute to the progress of the organization. The following representatives from the Denver Public Schools receive all-expenses grants to attend professional meetings:

Two from the administrative assistant-director-supervisor group

Two from the secondary school principal group

Seven from the elementary school principal group

Three from the assistant principal-coordinator-dean supervisor group

One from the social worker-psychologist group

Three from noncertificated employee groups

One from the full-time health service personnel group

Nineteen from the classroom teacher group as follows:

Ten elementary school teachers

Eight secondary school teachers, four from junior high school and four from senior high school

One teacher from Opportunity School

One from the special professional and noncertificated personnel, other than persons eligible for such a grant through membership in some other category.⁴⁰

Denver's policies on travel to professional meetings are the special concern of a Travel Policy Committee of three classroom teachers: one each from high school, junior high school, and elementary school. The Travel Policy Committee recommends that employees on leave for attendance at professional meetings be permitted to visit schools in the area where such meetings are held or at schools en route.

CULTURAL EVENTS

English teachers need to cultivate the resources of the mind and spirit. They need time to read current magazines, book reviews, and books; to attend the theater or the opera, or concerts; to go to museums and art shows; and to associate themselves with

⁴⁰ From regulations approved by the Denver Public School Employees' Council and adopted as a policy by the superintendent on September 12, 1957.

cultural groups in a community. If these inner resources do not develop, the English teacher is a questionable representative of the humanities.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS

During the summer of 1961, an oversubscribed two-week conference at the University of San Francisco brought teachers together to consider the effect on English teaching of such developments as team teaching, large group instruction, flexible scheduling, the use of lay readers, programmed learning, and educational television. English teachers need to study and analyze the advantages and disadvantages of the newer approaches.

Certain of the emerging trends may offer unique opportunities for inservice education in English:

Using Team Teaching to Provide Guidance for Inexperienced Teachers. Teams of three or four elementary or secondary school teachers may be so organized that the first or second year teacher has an opportunity to work regularly with his more experienced peers. Such a procedure is being followed at Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts.

Using Large Group Lectures for Demonstration Teaching. Many teachers enjoy observing their colleagues teach, although conventional scheduling limits interclass visitation. Large group lectures, involving several classes, can enable several teachers to observe a skilled teacher in action and to work with him afterwards.

Using Lay Reader Programs to Encourage Reassessment of the Teaching of Writing. Experimental programs involving the employment of lay readers suggest that, when certain conditions are met, the programs may result in more efficient instruction. Readers must be carefully selected, provision must be made for their orientation, and time must be provided for conferences between teacher and reader and between reader and pupils. Too often, unfortunately, such conditions are not met. However, when the teacher of English is required to explain the purposes of each assignment to another person, he must necessarily consider these purposes himself. Just as the experience of working with a student teacher will sometimes encourage a supervising teacher to become more analytical about

his own efforts, so association with a lay reader may cause a re-assessment.

In addition, many worthwhile programs provide training conferences for the readers and teachers. Virginia Burke describes one such plan in her helpful monograph:

The coordinator now arranges a series of training sessions, for readers, including those tentatively designated as alternates, and for teachers selected to work in the program. As one might expect, problems of composition and theme evaluation are discussed, with readers and teachers evaluating student themes together. The SUPRAD (School and University Program in Research and Development) Workshop, conducted in the summer of 1957 by Edwin H. Sauer of Harvard Graduate School of Education, included a preview of principles of writing, good usage, reading and evaluating themes, and composition work by the applicants.⁴¹

In such a program as Professor Burke describes, the opportunities for inservice growth of teachers are clear, whatever position one takes concerning the use of such lay assistants.

However, not always does the use of lay readers result in more efficient instruction. During 1961-1962, Ray H. Braun discovered that evidence to support the use of lay readers is as yet far from conclusive. He summarizes his findings in the following cautionary statement:

Lay readers, or theme graders, have been used extensively in American high schools in recent years and subjective reports from teachers, students, and lay readers themselves have been predominantly favorable. Only a few objective, statistically controlled investigations have been made of the effectiveness of lay readers, and the reported findings have been inconclusive, inconsistent, and sometimes confusing. The value of lay readers has not been demonstrated experimentally.⁴²

⁴¹ Virginia M. Burke, *The Lay Reader Program, Background and Procedures* (Oshkosh, Wis.: Wisconsin Council of Teachers of English, 1961), p. 19; see also Edwin H. Sauer, *Contract Correcting: The Use of Lay Readers in the High School Composition Program*, Revised Edition (Washington: U. S. Dept. of HEW, 1962).

⁴² Ray H. Braun, "An Investigation of the Effectiveness of Lay Readers" (Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Illinois, 1962).

Using Programmed Instruction in Inservice Courses. Most self-instruction material currently available is designed for college or high school courses. It could be developed for inservice education. For example, a course on descriptive linguistics might be programmed especially for use by elementary or secondary teachers who need the background, and some teachers who are unable to enroll in such courses at colleges or universities could pursue such study in their own homes.

Interpreting to the Public. As teachers have needed to explain educational programs, techniques, and materials to parents, they have often clarified their own ideas and improved their own practices. While few people would regard working with the public as a planned technique of inservice education, problems of public relations do arise in the profession of teaching. When these problems become acute and disturbing, teachers need to reconsider the constructive role controversy can play in a democracy, so that not every criticism or negative remark will disturb them. They also need a chance to express their convictions and to defend publicly the classroom procedures in which they believe.⁴³

Parents, employers, and colleges want to know what is going on in the English classes in elementary and secondary schools. These people frequently have strong convictions and some prejudices, often regarding the teaching of reading, writing, and grammar. Teachers who use recent findings of research in descriptive linguistics and English usage, for example, may find themselves criticized by people unfamiliar with the research.

The public has frequently been uneasy with programs preparing students for college placement tests or with general curriculum development. Teachers must be ready to explain these procedures to critics and describe the conditions in which the programs operate.

⁴³ To assist teachers in working with the public, the National Council of Teachers of English has published several bulletins. See especially *Informing the Public about the English Language Arts*, 1961; *The Two R's Plus*, 1960; *Censorship and Controversy*, 1953; and *Council-Grams*, XXIII: 3 (Special Issue, 1962).

GENERAL SUMMARY

The education of any teacher begins with his undergraduate studies at the college or university, but the professional teacher recognizes an obligation to continue learning throughout his lifetime. His sense of responsibility to himself, his students, his subject, and his profession should lead him to search for new knowledge and new procedures which will help him as a teacher. In the process, he will obtain help from many sources—books and journals, courses and conferences, research and experimentation, and participation in professional meetings. The variety of inservice programs described in this chapter testifies to the insatiable desire of many teachers of English to seek self-improvement.

Critics of today's teachers sometimes overlook the many attempts already being made to provide for continued learning. Inservice education functions most effectively when all of the involved organizations, institutions, and people work together to achieve common goals. School districts and professional organizations alike should stimulate teachers' intellectual curiosity and their desire to guide student learning.

In the long run, the ultimate purpose of inservice education is the improvement of the total educational program. However, since the teacher is the key figure in such endeavor, the focus of inservice education will primarily be on meeting his needs and developing his special abilities. One of the ways to determine the needs and talents of the teacher is through cooperative follow-up study, such as is described in the next chapter.

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PREVIEW

**EXTENT AND NATURE OF FOLLOW-UP PROGRAMS IN THE
UNITED STATES**

INFORMAL FOLLOW-UP PROGRAMS

FORMAL FOLLOW-UP PROGRAMS

OPERATION OF FORMAL FOLLOW-UP PROGRAMS

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CHAPTER 8

Follow-up Study of Teachers of English on the Job in Elementary and Secondary Schools

AS EARLY AS 1873, staff members in American colleges and universities expressed interest in the academic preparation of high school graduates seeking college admission.¹ During recent years this interest has developed into a loudly expressed concern that college freshmen are not adequately prepared to do college level work.² Today professors, deans, and presidents of colleges and universities also show a growing interest in their own graduates.

Written by Arno Jewett, U. S. Office of Education; Elizabeth Carney, Colorado State College; M. Agnella Gunn, Boston University; Walter Loban, University of California; Richard A. Meade, University of Virginia; Ingrid M. Strom, Indiana University; Irwin J. Suloway, Chicago Teachers College; and William S. Ward, University of Kentucky.

¹ Ellsworth Tompkins and Walter H. Gaumitz, *The Carnegie Unit: Its Origin, Status, and Trends* (Washington: U. S. Dept. of HEW, Office of Education Bulletin 1954, No. 7. Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office).

² The NCTE Committee on High School-College Articulation summarized 76 separate statements by college English departments on the preparation of high school students for college, cf. "What the Colleges Expect," *English Journal*, L (September, 1961), 402-412; "High School-College Liaison Programs: Sponsors, Patterns, and Problems," *English Journal*, LI (February, 1962), 85-93; "But What Are We Articulating With?" *English Journal*, LI (March, 1962), 167-179; and "A Blueprint for Articulation," *College English*, XXIV (February, 1963), 400-403.

Some college faculty members are studying their own products to assess their preparation as cultured citizens and professional workers.

Personnel in teacher education have been making follow-up studies of their graduates during their first year or two as classroom teachers. College staff members often give professional assistance to graduates during those years. They know that problems facing the beginning teacher—problems in discipline and planning for example—may be solved by continuing professional advice and assistance. The startling 10 per cent rate of dropout from the teaching profession each year can, they believe, be materially reduced by a systematic follow-up program.³

Follow-up programs are also considered important for teacher placement and advancement. Teachers who are successful in their first assignment can be identified, their best competencies recognized, and their capabilities assessed. College placement officers can guide superior teachers to more responsible positions. Such assistance induces capable teachers to remain in the profession.

College administrators and professors utilize follow-up programs for evaluating their curriculum, for changing it, and for experimenting with new programs. Subject matter professors who are critical of high school graduates have an opportunity to look at their own offerings and to work with professional educators in preparing qualified teachers.

EXTENT OF FOLLOW-UP PROGRAMS

To discover the extent, nature, and values of follow-up programs for college graduates teaching elementary and secondary school English, the committee preparing this chapter made a nationwide survey of colleges and universities. Through correspondence with state departments of education and teacher education institutions, each of the committee members attempted to locate schools with follow-up programs. They sent a questionnaire to 392 colleges and universities. Returns indicated that

³ Ward S. Mason and Robert K. Bain, *Teacher Turnover in the Public Schools, 1957-58* (Washington: Dept. of HEW, U. S. Office of Education Circular No. 608, 1959), pp. 4-8.

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about one-fifth (82) had either an informal or a formal follow-up program for graduates teaching in high school. Of 54 colleges and universities preparing elementary teachers, one-half (28) reported a follow-up program of some sort. Twenty-one of these colleges had had their program from four to twenty years. More public institutions of higher education than private colleges have follow-up programs. Most schools reporting no program indicated that they were preparing one or that they felt the need for one but lacked the necessary money or personnel.

INFORMAL FOLLOW-UP PROGRAMS

Colleges were classified as having an informal program when they indicated that (1) no single administrator or faculty member had been delegated authority for planning, coordinating, and supervising faculty efforts to assist recent teacher graduates, and (2) follow-up services were sporadic and opportunistic.

Informal programs provide services when the opportunity permits: on homecoming days, at alumni reunions, during visits with college professors or deans, at education meetings on or near the campus, or through informal correspondence. In a few colleges using public schools for student teaching, college supervisors visit with recent graduates working in the schools. Many colleges send questionnaires to graduates to ask for reactions to the effectiveness of the college program. In a few instances, a faculty member conducts a survey of recent graduates to discover the nature of their professional duties, their classroom problems, and their relationships with colleagues, administrators, and the community.

For example, Forrest W. Frease, English professor at Colorado State College at Greeley, conducted an extensive study of English majors who had been graduated from the college during a five-year period. The main purposes of the study were (1) to determine how the program of teacher education could be strengthened, (2) to interest graduates in the work of professional organizations, and (3) to bring about a feeling of unity among the English teachers.

In a two-page questionnaire, Professor Frease asked questions

such as these: What do you like best about teaching? What is the chief problem you have met in teaching? Have you found school administrators helpful? What were the chief deficiencies in your college education? Should you have had more training in grammar, in composition, in English literature, in American literature, in oral English, in literature for adolescents? Have you found the community friendly to you? Have you plans for getting a master's degree? Knowing what you now know, would you major in English if you had to make the decision again? If not English, what would your major be?

By far the most prevalent type of informal follow-up program is that carried on by the college placement office when finding new positions for teachers currently employed. Interviews and correspondence between the placement director and these teachers, however, afford only limited opportunities for follow-up questions and discussion.

FORMAL FOLLOW-UP PROGRAMS

Fewer than 10 per cent of the colleges and universities in this survey of 392 institutions preparing secondary school teachers reported a formal follow-up program.⁴ The person who usually assumes responsibility for formal programs is, again, the director of the teacher placement office. Occasionally, the director of student teaching, the administrative head of the school or department of education, the director of field services, or a professor of education is in charge. In only a few instances is the follow-up program for English teachers the specific responsibility of an English professor or the director of teacher preparation in English. Seldom is there a close working relationship between the academic and education professors in the development and operation of follow-up programs.

⁴ In the questionnaire sent to colleges, a formal follow-up program was defined as "an effort by college staff members to give professional help to recent graduates now teaching. This help may take one or more of the following forms: (a) inquiry by letter; (b) inquiry during a private conference; (c) conducting discussion groups; (d) obtaining reports from teacher's principal, supervisor, or other administrative officer; and (e) other."

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In 17 of the 28 institutions reporting a follow-up program for prospective elementary teachers, the work was done by members of the education department, generally as an extra duty. In other schools the director of placement or field services did the work. In no case was an English professor reported to be active in the program for elementary teachers. Where visits and/or meetings were used for follow-up, college administrators rather than instructors were involved. In only a few schools was a follow-up program deemed important enough to require a person to devote much time to it. No extra compensation was given for this work; only about one-fourth of the colleges with follow-up programs for elementary teachers allowed a decreased work load for persons active in the program. Where loads were reduced to allow time for classroom visitation and meetings, the reduction tended to be more than one-fourth and in two cases over one-half.

Operation of Formal Programs. Over 95 per cent of the colleges with formal programs report corresponding at least once a year with first-year graduates and their supervisors, principals, or superintendents. Such correspondence usually discovers (1) how well the college prepared the new teacher to meet the professional demands of his assignment and (2) how well he is performing on the job.

Frequently, colleges send a questionnaire to the teacher and his administrative supervisor. A typical questionnaire asking a superior's evaluation of the teacher's competence and performance is reproduced below:

The Department of Education at Panhandle A. & M. College, Goodwell, Oklahoma, desires to have information concerning the work of the following individual as a teacher in your school system.

We shall appreciate it if you will give us the information asked for below. This form is a follow-up for graduates who are teaching and is intended as an instrument for possible service to them in the future as well as a guide for improving the preparation of prospective teachers now in training. The information will be treated professionally and will not become part of the teacher's permanent record here. Thank you for this contribution to the teaching profession.

Name of Teacher _____

Location _____ Annual Salary _____

Subjects or grades taught or teaching _____

Superior Good Average Fair Poor

Qualities (check) _____

1. Personality, appearance, forcefulness _____
2. Mastery of subject matter _____
3. Dependability _____
4. Understanding of and interest in students _____
5. Ability to instruct _____
6. Competency in English expression _____
7. Ability to control _____
8. Sincerity of purpose _____
9. General culture _____
10. Leadership, initiative, resourcefulness _____
11. Character, standards, ideals _____
12. Value in co-curricular program _____
13. Ability to get along with colleagues _____
14. Contribution to the welfare of the community _____
15. General rating _____

Comments: _____

Signature _____ Address _____

Position _____ Date _____

An example of the questionnaire addressed to the beginning teacher is reproduced below:

The Department of Education at Panhandle A. & M. College desires your candid reaction to the items listed below. *This form is a follow-up for graduates who are teaching* and is intended as an instrument for possible service to you in the future as well as a guide

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for improving the preparation of prospective teachers now in training. The information will be treated professionally and will not become part of your permanent record here. Thank you for this contribution to the teaching profession.

Please rate the following factors as *sources of difficulty* for you during the present school year: (Check one for each item.)

	Degree of Difficulty Experienced				
	Very High	High	Average	Slight	None
1. Your mastery of subject					
2. Methods and techniques of teaching					
3. Classroom organization and management					
4. Classroom morale and control					
5. Ability to get along with colleagues					
6. Community relationships					
7. Extracurricular duties					
8. Teaching load					
9. Understanding of and interest in pupils					
10. Your teaching personality					
11. Competency in English expression					
12. Administrative support					
13. Leadership and resourcefulness					
14. Relationships with parents					
15. Adequacy of library and other sources of materials					
16. Understanding of educational philosophy and objectives					

17. Your general knowledge
and culture _____

18. Other _____

Comments:

Signature _____ Address _____
Position _____ Date _____

After studying the returns from teachers and administrative supervisors, the director of the follow-up program is able to report his findings and offer his recommendations to professors of English, professors of education, administrators, supervisors, and other persons responsible for teacher education.

Questionnaires to the principal, superintendent, or supervisor are usually mailed by the college placement office near the end of the first year. However, those addressed to the teacher are sent at various times: after the teacher has been on the job two months, a semester, or a full year. When questionnaires are completed during the first half of the year, the college may try to offer consultant service where needed and desired.

The reliability of the judgments elicited by such questionnaires is, of course, open to question. The following paragraphs from a letter written by J. B. White, dean of the College of Education, University of Florida, discuss the problem:

Two years ago the Teacher Education Advisory Council in the state undertook a follow-up program for beginning teachers in the state. At this time we sent to the teachers an evaluation instrument asking them to evaluate their preservice training. We also sent a similar instrument to the principals of these teachers asking them to indicate the effectiveness of the training program as reflected by the teachers in their work. In addition to that we administered the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory to the beginning teachers.

We are very much disappointed in the results of this follow-up. It indicates that teachers were not discriminating in their evaluation of the preservice program. In fact, it appears that the poorer the teacher, the higher her rating of her college program. Neither did we get discriminating results from the principals' evaluations. We were forced to conclude that principals as a whole do not know much about their beginning teachers.

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As a result of this study, we have to conclude that a different type of evaluation other than sending questionnaires to principals and teachers must be developed before an effective program can be worked out.

Correspondence between college directors of follow-up programs and new teachers also includes the following: (1) invitations to workshops, short courses, alumni reunions; (2) offers of assistance with classroom problems; (3) advance notice of visits by supervisors; and (4) suggestions for orientation in the classroom and community.

For example, Nebraska State Teachers College at Peru reports:

Upon having contracted for positions, our graduates are given a LIST OF SUGGESTIONS which point up various details preparatory to starting their employment. Suggestions for various duties and activities for use on-the-job are included.

An informal letter from the Placement Office goes to all newly employed graduates about the third week in September. We ask for any information, pictures, clippings, and a brief opinion about their personal welfare that they might want us to have. We indicate that there will be a check up with them at a later date when they can express their opinions of their college preparation.

At Indiana University, the professor of the teaching of English sends inquiries to recent graduates, asking them about the nature of their positions and their interest in professional advancement. Also, she sends letters to all teacher graduates inviting them to fall and summer English conferences.

Each year the director of teacher placement at Queens College, New York City, sends a letter to teacher graduates. The letter states, "Members of the Education Department . . . are still very much interested in you, personally. We should like to know . . . if there is any way in which we, now your partners in the teaching profession, can be of further assistance to you . . . We shall do all we can to put our facilities at your disposal." The letter adds that appointments with staff members can be arranged through the Placement Office.

Next to letters and questionnaires, the most frequent follow-up activity is the group and individual conferences held at or near

the college. Several colleges and universities hold annual or semi-annual conferences for teachers of English. Boston University, the University of California at Berkeley, Duke University, Indiana University, the University of Kansas, the University of Michigan, the University of Minnesota, the University of North Carolina, Stanford University, Texas Woman's University, the University of Virginia, and Yale University are a few of the many schools which periodically conduct workshops and conferences for both beginning and experienced English teachers. Yale, Queens College, Central Connecticut State College, and others also have one or more Alumni Days during which teachers of English come together to study instructional problems with professors and supervisors. At Queens College, one topic discussed at a meeting of both beginning and experienced teachers is "What Is Beginning Teaching Like?"

The State University of New York College at Albany holds an annual conference for first-year teachers. During the morning, teachers listen to addresses and panel discussions about professional topics of current interest; during the afternoon, the English teachers meet with English supervisors and other college staff members to discuss current problems and needs. Northwestern State College, Oklahoma, and Morehead State College, Kentucky, also hold conferences for beginning teachers. Attendants at these conferences, which are conducted some time during the middle of the school year, include practice teachers, supervisors, and education and liberal arts faculty members. Teachers College, Columbia University, holds a fall conference specifically for first-year teachers of English as well as a work conference for the study of a major professional problem. Graduate students and teachers in the metropolitan area attend.

Occasionally local English associations schedule conferences, programs, and discussion groups for first-year teachers. Although such conferences are not sponsored by any single teacher education institution, members of local colleges often participate as consultants. The Central California Council of Teachers of English discovered that such programs encourage beginning teachers to participate in professional activities. Continuous participation and continuous follow-up are achieved by the Lan-

guage Education Council of Wayne State University, an affiliate of the National Council of Teachers of English, which enrolls faculty members, prospective teachers in training, and former graduates teaching English in the schools of Michigan. Thus graduates return regularly for meetings of the council and confer with their former professors and associates. Serving a similar purpose but unaffiliated with any larger association is the English 300 Club of California, an alumni association of English teachers who have been graduated from the Berkeley campus where they shared a popular course on the teaching of English labeled "English 300." The group meets semiannually with their former professors to discuss teaching problems.

For many years large universities such as Minnesota, Stanford, Illinois, and Columbia have arranged breakfast or dinner meetings for teacher graduates in attendance at large national conventions and have arranged informal get-togethers and seminars. At these social gatherings teachers are likely to be candid about their professional inadequacies and problems.

Inservice help in the classroom is generally desirable. However, only about a third of the colleges with follow-up programs reported that they attempt to arrange for individual conferences with teachers at their schools. More than 50 per cent of these visits are conducted once a year and/or "when needed." Other schools reported that visits are made occasionally; one-fifth of the schools reported that visits are scheduled for each semester.

Classroom visitation for the beginning teacher is an established part of many fifth-year internship programs, such as those conducted at the University of California, Stanford University, San Francisco State College, and the Harvard Graduate School of Education. In most of these programs, the teacher intern is supervised closely by an experienced teacher in the school and is also visited by a supervisor from the teacher education institution. Thus preservice education, inservice education, and follow-up activity become so closely intertwined that the three are almost indistinguishable.

The college personnel who visit and hold conferences with teachers are usually supervisors of instruction, professors of education, and placement officers. The present study found that few

professors of English (2 to 3 per cent) visit high school classes taught by their former majors in English. The head of a university English department who was engaged in this study writes, "Academic subject matter fields (English in this case) have a real stake in the follow-up program. The responses received make it clear that it is the education departments that are doing the little that is being done . . . but English departments need to get in on this job, too."

That academic English departments are beginning to recognize the value of follow-up activity shows up in several recent attempts to strengthen the effectiveness of summer institutes for experienced teachers of English by providing follow-up help during the subsequent school year. During the fall of 1960, a professor of English at the University of Michigan was released part time to meet with practicing teachers who had attended a summer workshop sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies. Similarly, a key feature of the institutes of the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board was to release half-time a member of the college English department in each host institution for follow-up activities with teachers who attended the summer institutes.

Besides having field supervisors visit beginning teachers, Northwestern State College, Alva, Oklahoma, states in a bulletin on *Policies and Practices of Placement and Follow-up*:

Whenever possible, time will be provided to allow the departmental supervisors from the beginning teacher's major and minor fields of preparation to visit him during this first year in the field. These departmental supervisors can render valuable assistance to the beginning teacher in helping him overcome the problems encountered in adjusting to the profession of teaching.

During visits at schools where their graduates are teaching, college staff members not only attend classes and discuss professional problems, but occasionally they also do demonstration teaching, help with lesson planning, and give advice on classroom management, the teaching of reading and writing, and other topics. College representatives also discuss professional matters with the beginning teacher's supervisor and administrative supervisors.

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A few colleges make a definite effort to help beginning teachers who are in difficulty. For example, the State University of New York College at Albany reports:

In schools which our supervisors visit in the course of their regular duties, all new teachers are contacted. The problems encountered are then referred to the appropriate supervisor in the Department here at the College. When problems are being encountered by our new teachers, they are visited immediately by our supervisors. After that, several visits are made to help the new teacher over his difficulty.

During the school year, Concordia College, Moorhead, Minnesota, sends a teacher rating sheet to the superintendent, who has it completed and returned to the college. The director of student teaching then visits classes of teachers reported as unsatisfactory and tries to help them overcome their difficulties.

Newsletters and other periodicals dealing with professional subjects are sent to graduate teachers by fewer than 10 per cent of the schools with follow-up programs. Yale University publishes the *M.A.T. Newsletter*, which is sent to its Masters of Arts in Teaching. Among the follow-up articles headlined in one issue are these: "M.A.T. ALUMNI NAME CONDITIONS 'INDISPENSABLE' FOR GOOD JOBS," "CLASS OF '57 QUIZZES PREDECESSORS: ALUMNI ANSWER FROM EXPERIENCE," "WHO'S WHERE? SPRING ROUND-UP OF ALUMNI IS STILL INCOMPLETE" and "LINGUISTICS: A NEW ISSUE AT ENGLISH CONFERENCE; TEACHERS DEFINE GRAMMAR, URGE CREATIVE WRITING, MORE DRAMA." In addition to its long established *Teachers College Record*, Teachers College, Columbia University, publishes a portfolio newsletter, *Communication Lines*, which is sent to both old and new graduates who teach English and foreign languages. One feature of the newsletter is a signed professional article of significance for them; a second feature is an insert reporting research and teaching projects that alumni and staff believe valuable and promising. George Peabody College for Teachers sends copies of both the *Peabody Journal of Education* and the *Peabody Reflector* to each member of a graduating class.

The Harvard Graduate School of Education sends a monthly bulletin to its graduates.

In a few universities and colleges, graduate students preparing to teach English are engaged in research related to follow-up programs. The professor of English education at Boston University has several graduate students doing studies on the teaching of English in the secondary schools of New England. One graduate student made a follow-up study of the English teachers who were graduated from Boston University. At schools within the metropolitan area of Boston, the graduate schools of education at both Boston University and Harvard University have in progress several research projects in English. These cooperative projects enable the staff members of the universities to maintain close liaison not only with English teachers but also with administrators, consultants, and supervisors; they give teachers of English an opportunity to test creative and experimental ideas. "This kind of creative follow-up," states Edwin H. Sauer, "is perhaps the chief accomplishment in working with teachers already on the job."

SAMPLE PROGRAMS

Since 1945 Western Washington State College and other teacher training institutions in Washington have evolved comprehensive follow-up programs. Two characteristics are the widespread faculty participation and the close working relationships between faculty members and graduates. This program is described here.

In the fall of 1945 the Department of Student Teaching carried on a definite plan of visiting. Field supervisors, who began their fall quarter work two weeks before the general opening of the College, spent the major part of one week visiting recent graduates. These visits had two purposes:

- (a) to help establish good working relationships among the graduates, the school districts, and the College, and
- (b) to gain additional firsthand insight into the needs of teachers in the public schools in order that student teaching courses could be made more effective.

Because of rapidly increasing enrollments and the responsibilities

implicit in the general certificate plan, the President and an advisory committee reviewed the need for a new plan in respect to the graduate's first year of teaching experience.⁵

The original program agreed upon and carried out during the first year, 1951-1952, consisted of these phases:

1. Immediate and continuing contact by correspondence with each new graduate teaching on a Provisional General Certificate and with his school district.
2. The publication and distribution of a guide book to clarify the working relationships among beginning teachers, school districts, and the College.
3. A carefully planned fall quarter visit to each PC graduate by a faculty team comprised of one member from the professional departments and one member from the subject matter departments.
4. Midyear group conferences with these first-year teachers and their immediate supervisors.
5. A second (spring quarter) visit to each teacher by a faculty team, primarily as an aid in evaluating the first year of experience and planning for the fifth year of study.
6. An extensive (though largely subjective) evaluation of the enterprise by the committee, by all faculty participants, and finally by the faculty as a whole.

During this year the original advisory committee met from time to time to determine matters of policy. They agreed that the developing program of follow-up was a natural extension of the undergraduate counseling plan and should be integrated administratively with Student Personnel Services. Actually, the coordinator of student teaching carried out the major responsibility for the detailed procedures.

In 1952-53 and 1953-54, these modifications were made in the plan:

- (a) A permanent steering committee was given the basic respon-

⁵ Under this plan, the degree of Bachelor of Arts in Education and a Provisional Certificate are given to a student who has successfully completed four years of college work. The new graduate then does his initial year of teaching, followed by a fifth year of study after which a permanent general certificate is issued. See pp. 203-205 for a description of the requirements for the Provisional and Standard credentials in the state of Washington.

sibility for administering and evaluating the program. It included:

- The Director of Student Teaching
- The Chairman of the Department of Education
- The Registrar
- The Secretary of the Appointment Bureau
- The Coordinator of Student Teaching
- The Director of Student Personnel Services
- The President of the College

- (b) The Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction inaugurated a plan for midyear regional meetings involving PC teachers, representatives of the school districts, and college personnel. Consequently the group conferences previously held by Western Washington State College with its own graduates were absorbed.

The fall and spring visitations were carried out by faculty teams in essentially the same fashion as in 1951-52, with some refinements based on a year of experience. The same number of faculty teams visited a substantially larger number of first-year teachers. Per capita cost and travel time increased moderately.

Generally speaking, faculty participation was shared equally among education staff and the departments primarily concerned with subject matter, an average in each case of twenty. In these first three years the program of visits involved more than 75 per cent of the entire faculty.

In 1954-55 the program was again modified.

1. A revised guide book was published incorporating:
 - (a) Changes in certificate regulations
 - (b) A clear delineation of the responsibilities of the first-year teacher in achieving a Standard General Certificate
 - (c) An outline and explanation of the college follow-up program
 - (d) A general statement of objectives.
2. General faculty visitations concentrated in the fall quarter on somewhat expanded participation and greater emphasis on careful preparation. These fall visits showed special concern for the teacher's initial orientation to his position and to a plan for self-evaluation during the year.
3. The spring visit was staffed by a smaller group of professional faculty and administrative personnel. . . . This visit emphasized

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the formulation of a plan to guide the teacher's fifth year of preparation.

4. Definite load provision was made so that a well-qualified member of the staff could devote the time and effort necessary in effecting, planning, coordinating, and evaluating the program.

As a result of the follow-up program, new preservice courses were introduced in the program of studies for the academic year. The greatest program revision, however, came about in the summer offerings. Many of the changes were a direct result of insights gained in follow-up visitations.

Other values accruing from the program include:

A closer working relationship among all members of the college faculty; a larger concern on the part of faculty for the personal success of graduates; and a growing faculty desire to scrutinize the college program critically and to evaluate it in terms of the performance of the graduates.

There is also

. . . a broader understanding by the whole college faculty of school needs in the state of Washington and an increased recognition of the need to provide a program which is truly functional for the beginning teacher.

Undergraduate students and recent graduates show improved morale based upon the realization that the College has a continuing interest in their welfare as teachers. Related to this is the prevention of some possible first-teaching failures because of the cooperative relationship between the school district and the College. Also now, graduates plan better for the fifth year of professional study.

Finally, there is

. . . a closer and more effective working relationship between the school administrators of the state, the office of the State Superintendent, and the College. . . . School administrators, State Department personnel, and college staff are more effectively focusing their joint efforts toward the improvement of public education in the state of Washington.

Undoubtedly the most important phase in the program of Western College of Education is that of the actual field visits with widespread participation by members of all departments.

In concluding the report, the directors of the college program make these cogent observations:

- (a) "We do not find costs excessive; in fact, as judged by dividends the program is very economical.
- (b) "We have complete administrative support.
- (c) "With good planning an average of little more than two days away from the classroom on the part of the teaching faculty presents no serious difficulties. Resident students are not being neglected.
- (d) "The faculty as a whole believes in the enterprise. The result: genuine enthusiasm."

Queens College, New York City, for several years has conducted a closely coordinated follow-up program which extends beyond the first year of teaching. The main features of this program are described here by Dallas K. Beal, Director of Teacher Placement.

The Queens College Education Department has found that a planned program of follow-up of graduates provides the department with vital evaluative information. More important, it provides numbers of beginning teachers with the added assistance they need for a successful first year of teaching. Also, it enables the college to keep in direct contact with public schools that employ graduates.

Instructors in curriculum and methods courses have a wide range of incidental contacts with graduates and their administration within many miles of the campus. During these visits in schools, possibly for the purpose of visiting undergraduate students, the college instructors often initiate conferences with recent graduates who are teaching in the schools. Frequently, the initial contact with a recent graduate is continued during subsequent visits to the school. At other times, the conferences may take place on the college campus.

After contacting the graduate, the staff member is expected to file a brief report of his visit on 4" x 6" cards which he sends to the follow-up coordinator. On the card the visitor lists the level on which the graduate is teaching and makes a brief comment about the visit. The coordinator files this under an alphabetical listing of school systems where graduates are employed as teachers.

. . . The coordination of the follow-up service to graduates is the responsibility of the Director of Teacher Placement, thus placing this service in an office that is organized to work with the Central Placement Office of the four city colleges, staff members and local superintendents, supervisors and principals, as well as the graduates themselves. The Director of Teacher Placement and Co-

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ordinator of Follow-up attempts to coordinate the efforts of the department and provide the faculty with pertinent findings resulting from follow-up activities. In one office, then, files are available for use in locating graduates; surveys made by the Central Office of Teacher Placement for four city colleges are at hand; and information regarding the graduates' work before and after graduation is available.

About a month or six weeks following the beginning of each semester, the coordinator of the follow-up program sends a letter to each member of the most recent graduating class, enclosing a short form which gives the graduate an opportunity to request specific help from the college. The letter expresses interest in the graduate and invites him to a general meeting of the graduates of his class who are now teaching or planning to teach.

At this first meeting, the new teachers discuss their problems with members of the staff and arrange for further small group meetings or individual conferences at their schools or on the campus. At present, this meeting is sponsored by the Education Alumni Association. Thus, experienced alumni are able to assist the new teachers.

. . . The Education Alumni Association meets four or five times each year and sponsors the follow-up meetings each semester, thus making it possible for experienced teachers to attend the first meeting of new teachers. The Education Alumni Association also publishes a newsletter which is mailed to each member. The programs and work of the organization are determined by its executive board, which meets once each month.

In addition to the activities mentioned above, many important professional meetings are held on campus. Graduates are continually encouraged to attend the meetings. (Education 100, a noncredit course, has meetings four times each semester. The library is available to all graduates who wish to register for its services.)

Perhaps in the future plans can be made that will extend the present workshop courses to include more individualized help by the instructors through visits to the school of each teacher enrolled in the course.

In the future a closer contact with school administrators may come about through college conferences and workshops, thereby making it possible for the college staff to receive important evaluative suggestions from people who each day work with our graduates.

Finally, a follow-up program in teacher education . . . must be

shared by all the members of the department. It cannot be an appendage to the ongoing program, but rather an integrated part of the total program, contributing . . . to the successful preparation of teachers.

VALUES OF PROGRAMS

The chief outcome of follow-up programs as they are now conducted is the use of evaluative data for revision of the teacher training program. Placement directors or others in charge of follow-up programs generally report the information collected to the head of the education division and sometimes to the dean of the academic college or heads of departments.

Curriculum committees, too, analyze the data and recommend changing existing courses or establishing new ones. For example, based on data supplied by English teachers and their supervisors, Boston University changed its requirements so that both a major and a minor in English, totaling at least 30 semester credits beyond the freshman year, are needed by those preparing to teach secondary school English. Also, as a result of follow-up work, Boston University has added these course requirements: Literature for Young Adults, Advanced Composition or its equivalent, and Linguistics (American Grammar). Several changes in the professional program based on follow-up information have been reported by the Southern Oregon College. The teaching methods course, for example, is now taken concurrently with student teaching; more emphasis on class control and motivation is placed in a course titled Methods and Student Teaching; and the September Experience program has been initiated, in which student teachers observe a regular teacher organizing his classes and planning his work during the first two weeks of the high school year—before college classes begin.

Through follow-up studies, college faculty members understand more clearly the general problems of the elementary and secondary schools they serve and the need to develop college programs to meet changing conditions. Future teachers receive instruction and guidance based on actual classroom demands. Furthermore, those responsible for student teachers are pro-

viding them with apprentice experiences similar to those of beginning teachers.

Approximately a fifth of the colleges with follow-up programs believe that their relationships with local schools improved as a result of their interest in beginning teachers. One college professor wrote, "Our follow-up does show employers that we have a continuing interest in our products, and that we believe our responsibility extends beyond the granting of a credential." Another wrote that "Local authorities appreciate the service and cooperate fully."

When college staff members observe classroom teaching and hold personal conferences with beginning teachers, other important advantages accrue. The new teacher gains confidence and a sense of security. Sometimes the teacher returns to the college for advanced study to strengthen his academic and professional qualifications. Principals, superintendents, and school board members also become more sensitive to the needs of beginning teachers. Experienced teachers who wish to find new and more responsible positions can make their wishes known to persons who can help them. One college placement director stated that teachers who receive the benefits of follow-up service generally remain in the profession longer than they would otherwise.

The most gratifying result of a good follow-up program, however, was indicated by one director in these words, "We enjoy the satisfaction of seeing our young people grow into top-notch teachers."

DIFFICULTIES IN PROGRAMS

The two biggest obstacles to carrying on a formal follow-up program are interrelated ones: limited, overworked staffs and lack of funds. Almost all schools in this study indicated the desire to have a formal, carefully organized follow-up program. One dean wrote, "It is one of our needs but then someone must put time into it. It would prove valuable, I know." The head of a department of secondary education wrote, "I am extremely sorry to report that we do not have a follow-up program. This is not

because we think it is worthless; simply, this is a case of choosing to do one thing in preference to another with an overloaded staff." Several professors reported that time for conferences was extremely limited and that visits often had to be made during vacation periods or holidays without compensatory leave or credit toward their teaching load.

When funds and staff time are available, colleges must carefully plan this work with school personnel. The first-year teacher often has the same problem as the student teacher: adjusting all that he has learned to fit a set curriculum and fixed school policies. It will help him and school-college relations little if a follow-up consultant, without first checking at the policy making level, advises a course of action or a body of content that runs counter to prevailing practice. The beginning teacher, moreover, is only too aware that his appointment is probationary. He is unlikely to accept help from a college consultant who seems to be an extension of that arm of school administration most concerned with retention and firing. Both the primary purpose of the follow-up—helping the beginner to become the best possible teacher—and the limits within which the beginner is free to make choices ought to be clear to all who are touched by a follow-up program.

Other difficulties and problems include the long-range planning of visits, traveling great distances from the college, getting the interest and cooperation of all faculty members, and locating teachers who have moved to new positions. Another difficulty was described by a director of student teaching in these words: "Because most administrators apparently do no classroom supervision, many reports are too superficial to be of any use. We get very little information based upon observations of the students' teaching."

CHANGES DESIRED

The most important outcome of follow-up programs should be improved classroom teaching. However, no college participating in this survey reported that it attempts to measure objectively the teacher's professional growth resulting from its follow-

up program. Most of the evaluation is of two types: (1) that based on questionnaires sent to the teacher's superior in an attempt to discover the strengths and weaknesses of the teacher, and (2) that based on firsthand observations of the teacher by college staff members visiting classes briefly once or twice a year.

Unfortunately, the returns on questionnaires and the observations during visitation are apparently seldom used to improve the professional qualifications and competencies of the teacher. More time seems to be spent on evaluation than on improvement of instruction. One placement director wrote, "I wish that more effort could be spent in helping teachers rather than upon checking to see whether they have done a good job."

In this survey one of the questions asked of colleges was: What changes would you like to make in your present follow-up program? About a fourth of the schools having informal programs stated that they would like to develop a more carefully planned formal program. Several colleges whose staff members confer on the job with teachers wish that they had time for several long conferences each year instead of one or two brief visits. Also, for the purpose of evaluation, they want more conferences and interviews with the teacher's administrative supervisor. Three directors declared that they would like to extend their follow-up programs so that they would serve teachers for at least five years after graduation.

A few directors wish that their staff members would agree to a plan for coordinating the efforts of both academic and professional educators in follow-up studies, clinics, and visits to local schools. Opportunities to visit superior as well as ineffective teachers are desired by supervisors and directors of follow-up programs.

The most comprehensive answer received to the question about changes desired in a university follow-up program is the one which follows:

1. Find time in our schedules to visit our graduates' classes during their first two years of teaching and to confer with employers.
2. Get reports from school personnel who have actually visited our candidates' classes several times during the first year.

3. Get written reports from the candidates to find out how they are doing and what they suggest for improving our program.
4. Involve representatives of our academic departments in this follow-up.
5. Bring back to the campus some Saturday in the spring many of our graduates of the past ten years to discuss their teaching and problems and to offer suggestions for improving our program.
6. Find ways of getting our recent graduates involved in professional organizations.
7. Revise all the forms now being used as part of our present follow-up procedures.

GENERAL SUMMARY

If the results of the survey reported in this chapter can be considered representative of the follow-up programs carried on by American colleges and universities for their teacher graduates, a few observations seem justified:

1. The values of follow-up programs to both the beginning teacher and the teacher education institutions are generally recognized by education faculties but are overlooked too frequently by the faculties in the academic departments.
2. The percentage of institutions having formal follow-up programs for high school teachers is small—less than ten per cent.
3. Informal follow-up programs are likely to be unsatisfactory or ineffective because they place an undue burden on a faculty, they tend to be haphazard, and they lack coordination.
4. To be effective, follow-up programs must permit reasonably frequent classroom visits by experienced consultants and supervisors, followed by personal conferences aimed at helping the beginning teacher.
5. Both the academic and education faculties need to work more closely together than they are doing now in the follow-up work of the graduates they prepare for teaching.

6. Colleges and universities do not have follow-up programs because of two main reasons:
- (a) lack of money; and
 - (b) shortage of staff.

In conclusion, one might project a ray of optimism concerning American education. School administrators, teachers, professors, and other citizens now realize that the quality of American education must be improved if our young people are to be taught how to live and work effectively in a fabulous era of atomic energy, automation, electronics, and astronomical exploration and discovery. They are becoming aware that scientific achievements have social and economic implications for education, especially in a world loaded with nationalistic aspirations, cold war tensions, and hot war conflict. They are worried about the choice which leaders of strong nations will make between the H-bomb and the atomic reactor. They are conscious of the need for strengthening the intellectual achievement, personal integrity, and emotional stability of children and youth through a balanced program in education. And they are taking action. In many parts of America, high school English teachers and college composition instructors are meeting and planning together to improve the English curriculum—especially in writing and reading. The publication of *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* gave close attention to the academic and professional preparation of elementary and secondary school teachers of English. More attention needs to be directed to the new teacher's competencies and weaknesses in the classroom during his initial years of teaching. If college faculties and administrators will take as careful a look at their own teacher graduates as they have at high school graduates seeking college entrance, perhaps they will realize that good follow-up programs are worth the money and staff effort required. They may also accept the idea that in the second half of the twentieth century the responsibilities of higher education institutions for their graduates do not end when the college senior is handed his diploma on commencement day.

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Part IV

**PREPARING TEACHERS OF
COLLEGE ENGLISH**

458/459

❁ *Major Recommendations*

1. Departments of English should plan programs to recruit future college teachers from among their qualified undergraduate and graduate men and women.
2. Departments of English must annually prepare approximately 2,500 new full-time teachers of college English to meet the demand created by the rapidly increasing enrollment in institutions of higher education.
3. The undergraduate English major should include a program of general education planned to achieve stated goals, a balanced program of literature, and courses in advanced writing, modern English grammar, and speech.
4. The M.A. in English will have to be recognized as a terminal degree for an increasing number of full-time college teachers.
5. The M.A. for future college teachers should be designed to include courses in English linguistics, some supervised experience in teaching freshman English, and participation in staff meetings and related seminars.
6. The holder of the Ph.D. in English must be a professional person with a strong sense of social and educational responsibility, a potential statesman in the educational world.
7. The Ph.D. in English must continue to represent the highest kind of scholarly attainment for the graduate student, but it must also prepare him to become a competent college teacher.
8. Graduate courses in literature must give the candidate an awareness of the significance of literary scholarship and a reasonable command of several methodologies of scholarship.
9. The Ph.D. candidate must have comprehensive preparation as a teacher of the English language.
10. The future teacher of college English must demonstrate proficiency in written and oral expression.

11. The future college teacher should have supervised teaching experience in freshman English and in literature courses and have supplementary training in the professional aspects of college teaching.
12. The teacher of college English must recognize the importance of his responsibilities as a teacher of freshman English, a course representing about two-thirds of the students enrolled in English courses.

PREVIEW

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CHAPTER 9

Background for Planning Programs

MUCH THAT HAS BEEN RECOMMENDED in preceding chapters for the general education of all college students and for the subject matter preparation of teachers of English for the elementary and secondary schools depends not only upon programs established by colleges and universities but also upon the preparation and attitudes of college teachers themselves. Concern over the education of teachers for the public schools has long been evident. Although probably not so widely discussed nor so readily apparent to the public, dissatisfaction with the education of college teachers also has a long history. Now this concern is becoming increasingly evident.

One index of this current interest is the bibliography prepared by Eells, listing 2,665 books, monographs, dissertations, and articles published during the decade 1945-56 on the subjects of college teachers and college teaching.¹ Writers of these materials represent more than 400 educational institutions, especially those having strong graduate schools preparing the majority of candidates for the Ph.D. degree who become college teachers.² Tra-

Written by Alfred H. Grommon, Stanford University.

¹ Walter Crosby Eells, ed., *College Teachers and College Teaching: An Annotated Bibliography on College and University Faculty Members and Instructional Methods* (Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Regional Education Board, July, 1957).

² Walter Crosby Eells, "College Teachers and Teaching," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXIX (February, 1958), 97-98. The following list indicates the number of writers representing each of twenty-two universities, including

ditionally, these universities have trained most of the college teachers. Of special interest here, however, is the rather general dissatisfaction with present doctoral programs. Because over 90 per cent of the candidates earning Ph.D.'s in English become college teachers, questions about doctoral problems as suitable preparation for college teachers should be of particular interest to departments of English.

EARLY INTEREST IN QUALITY

As early as 1876, Daniel C. Gilman, president of Johns Hopkins University, recommended in his inaugural address that his institution, a new kind of graduate school, include education as a proper field of graduate study: "I can hardly doubt that such arrangements as we are maturing will cause this institution to be a place for the training of professors and teachers for the highest academic posts; and I hope in time to see arrangements made for unfolding the philosophy, principles, and methods of education in a way which will be of service to those who mean to devote their lives to the highest departments of instruction."³

In 1902 the faculty of Harvard College established the Committee on the Improvement of Instruction at Harvard College. According to W. H. Cowley: "This committee worked for a year and produced a report which considerably changed the direction of education at Harvard. It not only produced changes because

thirteen of the fifteen universities that conferred more than one-half of earned doctorates during 1948-1955:

Minnesota	84	Purdue	49	Harvard	35	Northwestern	21
Chicago	77	Michigan	47	Iowa	31	Washington	21
California	62	Penn State	46	Syracuse	31	Pittsburgh	20
Illinois	62	Texas	41	Indiana	30	Wisconsin	20
Columbia	60	Ohio State	39	Stanford	23		
New York	59	Missouri	38	Cornell	22		

³ *Addresses at the Inauguration of Daniel C. Gilman as President of Johns Hopkins University* (Baltimore, Md.: John Murphy and Company, 1876), pp. 38 ff., quoted in Ernest V. Hollis, *Toward Improving Ph.D. Programs* (Washington: ACE, 1945), pp. 14-15. Regarding Gilman's statement quoted here, Hollis says: "It is of particular interest to note that Gilman believed college and university professors to be in need of special training, and that he early started some aspects of graduate work in education by bringing G. Stanley Hall to Johns Hopkins."

of its immediate findings but also because one of its members, A. Lawrence Lowell, seven years later became president of Harvard."⁴

During 1920-40, at least eight major educational associations in the United States held conferences and published proceedings and reports on problems of training college teachers and on the state of college teaching.⁵ Their concern with these problems was an outgrowth of the earlier but sporadic criticisms and proposals. Concern, criticism, and proposals are common enough, but the test of the practical worth of these conferences, speeches, and publications is their effect upon Ph.D. programs for prospective college teachers and upon inservice efforts to improve college instruction.

THE PH.D. DEGREE

In reviewing influences on doctoral programs, Hollis says that "the social purpose of a degree constitutes the framework in which its contents and standards should be developed."⁶ Before 1905, the purpose of the degree program was "to train individuals who would either devote themselves to research directly, or who would combine individual study of an advanced character with the training of other workers under university auspices." Until that time, this assumption seemed sound. The degree was primarily a means of training candidates for careers in research.

Between 1905 and 1920, however, opportunities for those earning Ph.D.'s started to change significantly. College teaching began to attract persons away from careers in research. This development resulted, in part at least, from efforts of philanthropic foun-

⁴ Charles G. Dobbins, ed., *Expanding Resources for College Teaching*, Washington: ACE Series, XX (October, 1956), 6.

⁵ Chester Hersey Robinson, "The Work of Eight Major Educational Associations Toward the Improvement of College Teaching, 1920-40" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, School of Education, Stanford University, 1950). The eight associations are the American Association of University Women, American Association of University Professors, American Council on Education, Association of American Colleges, Association of American Universities, Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, National Association of State Universities, and the North Central Association.

⁶ Hollis, *op. cit.*, pp. 27-28 *et passim*.

dations and regional accrediting associations. To make sure that they were helping college professors and *bona fide* colleges, foundations began "to require, among other standards, that institutions employ six (later eight) professors who held an earned doctor's degree." At the same time, regional associations began to require increasing proportions of Ph.D.'s on undergraduate faculties. Recognizing this change, graduate schools, according to Hollis, admitted more students and expanded their programs and facilities. But at the same time, they standardized existing requirements for the degree apparently without taking into account the changing purpose of the degree for an increasing number of its recipients.

Much concern over graduate study in America grows from the persistent discrepancy between the original purpose of the degree and its present purpose as professional preparation for college teaching.⁷ Although only 43.2 per cent of the candidates who earned doctorates in 1958-60 continued as college teachers or entered the field as new teachers, 91.2 per cent of the 726 candidates in English either continued in or entered the field of teaching college English. The percentages of candidates in other fields who are or became college teachers ranged from 86.8 out of the 196 in philosophy down to 19.3 per cent of the 1,864 in chemistry.⁸ An obvious question is whether the same kinds of requirements and programs suitable for candidates in chemistry

⁷ For detailed discussions of the relationship between the requirements for the Ph.D. and those for college teaching see the following: Jacques Barzun, "The Ph.D. Octopus," *Teacher in America* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1945), pp. 195-208; Bernard Berelson, *Graduate Education in the United States* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960); John S. Diekhoff, "Who Educates the Faculty?" *The Domain of the Faculty in Our Expanding Colleges* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956), pp. 44-60; Howard Mumford Jones, "How Scholars Are Trained," *One Great Society* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1959), pp. 200-221; Earl J. McGrath, *The Graduate School and the Decline of Liberal Education* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959); Earl J. McGrath, *The Quantity and Quality of College Teachers* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961).

⁸ NEA Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959-60 and 1960-61* (Washington: NEA, 1961), pp. 44-45.

are equally suitable for those in English. If the historic principle of social purpose still applies, then graduate schools should examine the implications of such differences in purpose.

PROVIDING ADEQUATE NUMBERS OF COLLEGE TEACHERS

The purpose of this chapter is not to argue further whether present Ph.D. programs adequately prepare candidates for careers in college teaching. It is instead to present briefly some conditions confronting the college teacher of tomorrow and the institutions that prepare him for his profession. Although the problems are not new, their magnitude and consequences may be unsettling enough to force the adoption of new concepts and procedures. Many of the new needs will result from doubling college enrollments and from crippling shortages of teachers. Regarding the possible consequences, John E. Ivey, Jr., vice president of New York University, writes: "The next fifteen years will force complete revolution of the role of the faculty member and the teaching process in American colleges and universities. There is little likelihood that the nation's rate of producing college faculty will keep pace with the personnel needs of higher institutions. Yet no democracy can deny educational opportunities to those who want and need it and long retain its strength and vitality."⁹ What effect will these conditions have upon preparation for college teaching? And where and how will new teachers be found for the increased enrollments and new colleges?

FUTURE COLLEGE ENROLLMENTS

Although predictions of college enrollments in the next decade or two vary, the consensus seems to be that by 1970 more than 6,000,000 students will be attending more than 1,800

⁹ Walter Crosby Eells, ed., Foreword, *op. cit.* Berelson believes, however, that the predicted shortage and its consequences are exaggerated. See Bernard Berelson, *op. cit.*, p. 224.

degree-granting institutions in the United States. This enrollment about doubles that for 1959. Whereas about 35 per cent of college-age persons attended college in 1959, between 40 and 50 per cent are expected to do so by 1970.¹⁰ Concerning these prospects and their consequences, the Fund for the Advancement of Education stated in 1955 that:

The unparalleled economic prosperity of postwar America, the rise in family incomes, the increasing demand for college-trained people in business, government and the professions, and the growing tendency for a college education to be equated with higher earning power strongly indicate that the percentage of college-age youth seeking a college education is likely to continue upward during the next twenty years. . . .

This prospect poses many basic policy issues for the colleges and universities. For example, should an effort be made to dampen the expansion by applying more rigorous standards of admission? Should curriculum offerings be overhauled and drastically pruned? Should tuitions be raised to cover a larger share of the actual costs of education? Should quality standards be lowered if necessary to recruit more faculty members, or should standards be kept up and the faculty-student ratio reduced? How should the expansion be shared as between privately-supported and tax-supported colleges? What would be the consequences if a non-expansion policy by private colleges ultimately reduced their share of total enrollments from the present 50 per cent to 25 per cent? . . .

* * * * *

To maintain the present over-all student-teacher ratio . . . the colleges and universities will have to add more teachers in the next 15 years than in all previous history combined. . . .

* * * * *

If the present student-teacher ratio of 13 to 1 is to be preserved, for every 10 college teachers now employed, somewhere between 16 and 25 new ones will have to be found between now and 1970.

These cold statistics give only the quantitative perimeters of the

¹⁰ NEA Educational Policies Commission, *Higher Education in a Decade of Decision* (Washington: NEA, 1957), p. 31. The NEA's 1961 estimate was that 6,150,000 will be enrolled by 1970; see NEA, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959-60 and 1960-61*, p. 52.

problem. But the *qualitative* dimension is most vital. The quality of education depends upon the quality of teachers and not simply upon the number of teachers.

Thus, the question is not whether we can get enough people to teach. The real question is: Can we get enough *good* teachers?

If we match our needs against the prospective supply of well-qualified teachers, we can come to only one conclusion: *It will be impossible under the present pattern of teacher recruitment and teacher utilization to secure anywhere near enough good teachers for our schools and colleges over the next 15 years.*¹¹

If 6,150,000 students do enroll in 1970, how will colleges and universities find enough teachers to maintain a reasonable ratio of students to teacher? How many new teachers will be needed both as replacements and as additional staff to accommodate the doubled enrollment? Where will all of these teachers come from? Who will recruit them into college teaching?

The NEA estimates that by 1969-70 more than 390,000 full-time college teachers will be needed, even if the student-teacher ratio of 13 to 1 estimated for 1958-61 is increased to 16 to 1. This number represents about a 40 per cent increase over that for 1960-61. During the decade, 1960-70, about 29,000 *new* full-time teachers of college English will be needed, the largest number required by any single department.¹² The discrepancy between supply and demand is dramatized by the contrast between the number of Ph.D.'s earned in English between 1926-1955 and the estimated present and future needs. During those thirty years, 5,115 English doctorates were earned, an average of about 170 per year. During the eight-year period, 1948-1955, the total was 2,155, an average of about 270 per year.¹³ However, 2,500 new full-time English teachers will be needed each year between 1959-70 to maintain anything like the 16 to 1 student-teacher ratio. At the present rate, graduate schools can never supply enough college English teachers with advanced preparation even

¹¹ *Teachers for Tomorrow*, The Fund for the Advancement of Education, Bulletin No. 2 (New York: 1955), pp. 14, 17, 19, 21 *et passim*.

¹² NEA, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959-60 and 1960-61*, p. 55.

¹³ *American Universities and Colleges*, Seventh Edition, 1948, p. 69.

to lessen the sharp decline reported in Table 4 (see the Appendix).

The following figures may suggest the size of the potential manpower pool. In 1955-56 when only 323 men and 50 women received doctorates in English, 969 men and 923 women received master's degrees in English. No one would claim, of course, that all these M.A.'s were qualified to continue as candidates for the Ph.D. But departments of English should carefully consider whether more than one in five should not be encouraged to study for the Ph.D. and to prepare for careers in college teaching.

Despite the seriousness of the problem, apparently many institutions seem neither to recognize the magnitude of the shortage nor to consider themselves responsible in any way for trying to solve it. Ness, as a result of his study of recruitment of college teachers, states that "There is reason to think . . . that the profession itself does not yet appreciate the full seriousness of its plight."¹⁴

In 1955 MacMitchell surveyed forty-three private and public colleges and universities of several kinds and sizes in all parts of the country. Twenty-two of these institutions had made some plans to study problems of faculty shortage. Twenty-one said that they had done nothing about this matter. Twelve of these stated that they did not anticipate any difficulty because of their reputation and salary schedules or because they had deliberately hired more teachers than they then needed. Seventeen others, however, said that they did not know how or where they would obtain instructors for increasing enrollments. They did not seem to feel responsible for recruiting future college teachers from their students.¹⁵

These problems will not wait, although some institutions seem to think they will. They will not wait during the seven to ten years now required to prepare a Ph.D. As the following sections will show, lower standards in selecting new teachers, especially

¹⁴ Frederic W. Ness, *The Role of the College in the Recruitment of Teachers* (Washington: AAC, 1958), p. 6.

¹⁵ T. Leslie MacMitchell, "Are Institutions Planning Ahead?" *Journal of Higher Education*, 26 (December, 1955), 463-469, 504.

English teachers, have already been forced upon all types of institutions of higher education.

ATTRACTIVENESS OF THE PROFESSION

How will an institution find teachers? How attractively can it describe a career in higher education?

The Educational Policies Commission of the NEA stresses the lack of studies on college faculties:

Considering that a faculty is the chief asset of an institution of learning, it is surprising that few studies have been made of it as a professional, occupational group: the sociology of the occupation is relatively unexplored. Various stereotypes of faculty members exist, running all the way from that of "Mr. Chips" to the ineffectual, absent-minded comic of Hollywood films. The self-concepts of faculty members are themselves widely varied. The procedures by which faculty members are recruited and by which they progress through an academic career need much more systematic and objective analysis. The problems which lie ahead in recruiting and maintaining faculties will make such studies increasingly necessary.¹⁶

As someone has said, "A university may be defined as a community of scholars that studies everything under the sun except itself."

The attitudes of the colleges toward their own faculties attract students into college teaching or dissuade them from it. A few studies here are available.¹⁷ Yet even these do not answer the questions raised by Paul Klapper of the University of Chicago:

What material security does college teaching offer?

¹⁶ NEA Educational Policies Commission, *Higher Education in a Decade of Decision*, pp. 78-79.

¹⁷ The following references contain helpful information: Logan Wilson, *The Academic Man: A Study of the Sociology of the Profession* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1942). Lloyd S. Woodburne, *Faculty Personnel Policies in Higher Education* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950). Paul Lazarsfeld and Wagner Thielens, Jr., *The Academic Mind* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1958). Theodore Caplow and Reece J. McGee, *The Academic Marketplace* (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1958).

What voice does the college teacher have in shaping the life of the institution in which he teaches?

Is the college teacher free from the cultural provincialism which stifles what Whitehead characterized as "the great vision"?

What degree of freedom to teach does the college teacher have? ¹⁸

Methods of recruiting cannot be entirely separated from the procedures by which institutions hire faculty. Hiring procedures depend largely, if not exclusively, upon the recommendations given by the candidate's professors in the graduate school. Their criteria of selecting graduate students and their encouragement of those students to consider college teaching will attract students to the profession or repel them.

FACULTY OPINION

Individual college instructors influence student attitudes toward the profession. As an outgrowth of his study on twenty college and university campuses of the college influence on students' character, Eddy states: "In many ways, teaching is a self-perpetuating profession. Good teachers inspire students to join them; poor teachers discourage. The example of a teacher devoted to his subject and caring intellectually for his students may be the strongest factor in drawing students to the profession of teaching."¹⁹ This influence applies in recruiting college teachers as surely as it does in recruiting elementary and secondary teachers.²⁰

Almost any student considering a career in college teaching is curious about professors' reasons for becoming college teachers. By what steps did they enter the field? What satisfactions and dissatisfactions have they found in their work? Was teaching, in Klapper's words, a "residual calling" rather than a "preferred profession," or in Gustad's words, "the result of considerable

¹⁸ Paul Klapper, "Problems in College Teaching," *The Preparation of College Teachers*, edited by Theodore C. Blegen and Russell M. Cooper (Washington: ACE, 1950), p. 40.

¹⁹ Edward D. Eddy, Jr., *The College Influence on Student Character* (Washington: ACE, 1959), p. 53.

²⁰ See Chapter 4, pp. 150-151.

drifting"?²¹ But several studies do show why professors decided to become teachers and when.

A study made throughout the state of Minnesota reports information from 509 men and 197 women teaching in the University of Minnesota, fifteen private liberal arts colleges, five state colleges, nine public junior colleges, and two private junior colleges. It sought answers to these questions: "Why do people choose college teaching as a career? What kind of schools and colleges send the largest number of candidates into this career? From what kinds of family and social backgrounds do college faculty members come? When should active recruitment begin? What are the primary satisfactions associated with college teaching? What conditions tend to discourage persons from entering the field or remaining in teaching?"²²

The following table presents the factors these college teachers identified as those influencing them to enter the profession. The factors are ranked here by frequency of response from teachers in the four-year institutions. Similar ranking for junior college teachers is indicated in parentheses. According to this study, internal factors weighed more heavily in career choices than did the external factors. Perhaps these internal factors will appeal also to promising undergraduate and graduate students.

Also relevant are some of William A. Sutton's findings in his study of several aspects of the teaching of English in colleges and universities throughout Indiana. He received responses from 159 college English teachers to the question: "What were your main reasons for choosing this profession?" The reasons most frequently mentioned were these: enjoyment of teaching, enjoyment of literature, opportunity to give service, oppor-

²¹ John W. Gustad, "The Choice of a Career in College Teaching" (preliminary mimeographed unpublished report, 23 pages). This study was co-sponsored by the University of Maryland and the Southern Regional Education Board. Also see John W. Gustad, "They March to a Different Drummer: Another Look at College Teachers," *The Educational Record*, 40 (July, 1959), 204-211.

²² John E. Stecklein and Ruth E. Eckert, *An Exploratory Study of Factors Influencing the Choice of College Teaching as a Career* (Minneapolis: Bureau of Institutional Research, University of Minnesota, 1958), p. 1. This study was conducted under a grant from the Cooperative Research Program, USOE.

Table 1

FACTORS INFLUENCING CHOICE OF A COLLEGE
TEACHING CAREER
(FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE AND JUNIOR COLLEGE
FACULTIES)²³

<i>Factors</i>	<i>Faculty in Four-Year Institutions</i>		<i>Faculty in Junior Colleges</i>	
	N	%	N	%
<i>External</i>				
1. College teaching job offered although I hadn't sought one	226	39.2	63	48.5 (1)
2. College teacher recommended	156	27.1	30	23.1 (2)
3. Graduate fellowship or assistantship offered	144	25.0	18	13.8
4. College administrator or counselor encouraged me	140	24.3	27	20.8 (3)
5. G.I. benefits provided aid in advanced work	96	16.7	20	15.4 (4)
6. Parents, relatives, or friends favored it	64	11.1	18	13.8 (5)
7. Just drifted into college teaching	43	7.5	12	9.2 (6)
8. High school staff member suggested it	20	3.5	6	4.6 (7)
9. Armed forces training led me into field	10	1.7	3	2.3 (8)
10. Husband (wife) was or planned to be college teacher	3	0.5	1	0.8 (9)
Other	90	15.6	15	11.5
No Response	37	6.4	7	5.4
<i>Internal</i>				
1. Desired to work with college-age students	263	45.7	94	72.3 (1)
2. Liked working conditions	246	42.7	58	44.6 (3)
3. So interested in subject I wanted to continue its study	245	42.5	44	33.8 (4)
4. More of an intellectual challenge	238	41.3	59	45.4 (2)
5. Make greatest contribution to society in this area	193	33.5	43	33.1 (5)

<i>Factors</i>	<i>Faculty in Four-Year Institutions</i>		<i>Faculty in Junior Colleges</i>	
6. Felt I could contribute more to field by teaching in college	189	32.8	40	30.8 (6)
7. Wanted to pursue research activities in my field	161	28.0	16	12.3 (9)
8. Wanted to be a part of the college academic and social life	138	24.0	24	18.5 (7)
9. Wanted a job with security and prestige	81	14.1	23	17.7 (8)
10. Desired to emulate a certain college professor	47	8.2	10	7.7 (10)
Other	59	10.2	11	8.5
No Response	20	3.5	2	1.5

tunity to work with students of college age, enjoyment of writing, reading, and the study of language, enjoyment of the teacher's way of life. As Howard Mumford Jones says, "In our culture there is virtually no other place for a bookish person to go except into the college or the university world."²⁴

The Minnesota study also disclosed another factor that may be extremely important in any plans for recruiting prospective college teachers, that is, the time when these teachers decided to become college teachers. On this point Stecklein and Eckert report that:

Members of the group studied decided to enter the college teaching field relatively late in their educational careers. Although nine per cent of the faculty members indicated that they had seriously considered college teaching as a career sometime before entering college, less than three per cent specified college teaching as a definite career goal at college entrance. Less than a third (29 per cent) had begun to seriously consider a college teaching career during undergraduate days. Half of the total group did not decide to enter college teaching until after they had graduated from college, more than a fourth (26 per cent) deciding sometime during or after the completion of their graduate study.²⁵

²³ Stecklein and Eckert, *op. cit.*, p. 11. The total per cents exceed 100 because some respondents indicated more than one factor in each list.

²⁴ *Expanding Resources for College Teaching*, pp. 14-15.

²⁵ Stecklein and Eckert, *op. cit.*, p. 7. Black's report on plans of Stanford freshmen to prepare for college teaching is more encouraging. See page 483.

Gustad likewise found that many college teachers entered the profession casually and late. Apparently the real decision for these people was selecting a subject to study in college, not in selecting a career in teaching—"insofar as this was a real decision." This study should be of special interest to teachers of college English because it was designed to discover why people become college teachers of English, chemistry, and psychology, and why some later decided to leave the profession for other positions. His sampling consisted of teachers and graduate students in southern colleges and universities and former teachers who had taught in southern institutions.

Although these studies by Gustad and by Stecklein and Eckert revealed that, in general, college teachers decided relatively late to enter the teaching profession, they also showed that a larger percentage of teachers of humanities than those in other fields are likely to make such decisions during undergraduate years. Gustad found a tendency for college English teachers to have decided as early as high school. The Minnesota study shows that early choice is important for at least two reasons. First, those who make this choice as undergraduates tend later to be highly satisfied with their profession. Second, teachers tend to return to the same type of institution in which they had done their undergraduate work. Therefore, although all institutions should recruit prospective college teachers from among their qualified undergraduate men and women, those having particular difficulty finding enough teachers should invest in their future supply by making a special effort to recruit for teaching their best undergraduates.

Gustad's sampling of chemistry and English teachers reported that their decisions to teach in college were influenced largely by former professors. When asked to describe these influential teachers, "those in chemistry frequently characterized them as rather cold, distant, and demanding, as excellent scientists, very serious and hard working. English teachers often described those who had influenced them as brilliant, stimulating, somewhat eccentric, and personally charming if also unpredictable."²⁶ Here

²⁶ Gustad, "The Choice of a Career in College Teaching," p. 10.

again is evidence that college teachers should take themselves seriously as recruiters of new colleagues.

STUDENT OPINION

Efforts to recruit college teachers should reflect not only what influenced teachers to choose this career but also what concepts of the profession undergraduates may harbor. As might be expected, people already teaching in college report that as undergraduates they were rather favorably impressed with the career. For example, the Minnesota study indicates that, at least in retrospect, one-third had as undergraduates considered it a "highly attractive" career in general. An additional twenty-nine per cent thought it a "highly attractive career" for themselves. At graduation from college, less than five per cent of them thought college teaching was unattractive both for themselves and in general.

Studies of undergraduates' opinions of college teaching as a career do not report, however, such generally favorable attitudes. They show instead a greater diversity of judgments based, in part, upon realistic concepts of the profession but also, for want of information that should be readily available to interested students, upon some popular misconceptions. For example, some undergraduates report that they are not interested in becoming college teachers for fear of getting into an "intellectual rut" or becoming ensconced in an ivory tower. They are also unwilling to undergo the long training necessary just to get into a profession that offers poor pay and, at times, second class citizenship.²⁷

Unfavorable opinions of careers in college centered most frequently on low salaries. Many were not interested in teaching because they were already committed to another occupation they judged more attractive. A sizable group thought they "couldn't meet the high intellectual demands." Some disliked the "monotonous and repetitive nature of teaching." Others thought that the profession "imposes restrictions both on the academic and personal life" of teachers. The salient disadvantage, though, to these

²⁷ Ness, *The Role of the College in the Recruitment of Teachers*, pp. 31-32.

students is the "long and arduous preparation for the profession."

Farber and Bousfield, in concluding their analysis of students' attitudes toward careers in college teaching state: "The cultural values that apparently produce the relatively low appeal of college teaching—the stress of early financial rewards, the anti-intellectualism—are not particularly susceptible to direct attack. They are, however, related to economic and political conditions and many change with them. The 'seamless web of culture' is, after all, woven by ourselves."²⁸

Considerably more encouraging evidence of undergraduates' views of the college professor is reported by O'Dowd and Beardslee, who were concerned with the relationship of students' attitudes toward college teaching to the crucial problem of immediate recruitment. Contrary to the disadvantages of such a career emphasized in some studies, the approximately 800 men at three colleges surveyed by O'Dowd and Beardslee rated college teaching as the most attractive of fifteen occupations and professions. In general appeal, the professor ranked closely with the doctor, lawyer, and business executive.²⁹

Through interviews and questionnaires, O'Dowd and Beardslee elicited students' concepts of the college professor. Among many aspects of their image of him, they see him as a highly intelligent person, devoted to scholarly work, whose main function is to *teach*. His intellectual qualities outrank those of people in other vocations and professions. From the responses to the questionnaire, the authors constructed the following description:

Associated with the professor's intelligence is great interest in and sensitivity to art. In sociopolitical outlook the professor is an individualist and a radical. He is believed to be only moderately interested in people. Although judged able to get along well with others, this is clearly not his major concern—he is, after all, a man of intellect. The college professor is believed to be unselfish; his

²⁸ Maurice L. Farber and W. A. Bousfield, "College Teaching as a Profession," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXIX (February, 1958), 70-72.

²⁹ Donald D. O'Dowd and David C. Beardslee, "The Image of the College Professor," *AAUP Bulletin*, Autumn, 1961, pp. 216-221.

devotion to the instruction of others is supported by generous motives. The college professor is not markedly dominating, yet he is moderately active, strong, confident, and self-sufficient. The relatively high rating of the professor on perseverance and self-assertiveness suggests that these qualities are associated primarily with a man of thought rather than a man of action. The strength possessed by the professor is derived from his adequacy in dealing with ideas rather than reality.³⁰

A small sampling of Wesleyan University undergraduates was interviewed to get their impressions of the "English professor," the "economics professor," and the "chemistry professor." Of special interest here is these students' highly favorable impression of the "English professor." They associate him with "learning, the arts, and with a genuine interest in students." They think of him as being a "good family man" and of traveling a "great deal in quest of enriching experiences." In fact, conclude O'Dowd and Beardslee, "it is worth noting that the image elicited by the words 'college professor' is that of a professor of English."³¹

In discussing the implications of their study, the authors say:

The features of the college professor image have important implications for attracting students in different college settings. Students in public and private colleges see the professor somewhat differently. State university students see the professor as successful and in control of his emotions. Private college students are more impressed by his exciting and expressive qualities. This leads to the expectation that at the state university, college teaching will attract young men with an interest in entering a secure and respected profession. At the private colleges, the student who is seeking a challenging career that encourages creative and unorthodox expression is the most likely candidate for college teaching.

The major conclusion of this study is that a well-defined and attractive image of the college professor is shared among college students. Indeed, students view the professor more favorably than do members of a college faculty. On balance, the professor compares favorably with all other major professional groups. Given this asset, it should be possible to attract large numbers of able students into teaching in the next decade. Although the word "image" may

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 217.

³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 220.

only refer to shadows and reflections, as Plato suggested, men frequently pursue images with single-minded determination.³²

RECRUITMENT PROJECTS

Unquestionably, the need for teachers of college English demands that departments of English and individual instructors vigorously recruit talented men and women for careers as college teachers. Many institutions are demonstrating their concern. In his foreword to Ness' report on *The Role of the College in the Recruitment of Teachers*, J. Conrad Seegers, chairman of the Commission on Teacher Education of the Association of American Colleges, states:

The educational leaders of this country have been aware for a long time of the dangers inherent in our failure to provide an adequate supply of new college teachers to meet the growing demands of higher education; and yet for some time there appears to have been an apathetic attitude toward the problem . . .

Fortunately, the past two or three years have seen a more vigorous and positive approach to the problem. Many very promising plans and programs have come into being through the efforts of individual colleges and universities, as well as through some of the professional associations.³³

In 1957 Seeger's Commission on Teacher Education found that 284 institutions had established projects for the "identification and motivation of the right kinds of young men and women for college teaching." This number included Harvard, Yale, Chicago, Pittsburgh, Syracuse, Ohio State, Michigan, and many other universities and liberal arts colleges.

Another encouraging and productive attack is the program of the Woodrow Wilson National Fellowship Foundation. In fulfilling its purpose, "To dramatize and ease the critical need for college teachers in the United States and Canada," the foundation

annually supports one thousand carefully selected young men and women in their first year of graduate school. In pacing the nation's

³² *Ibid.*, p. 221.

³³ Frederic W. Ness, *op. cit.*, Foreword.

search for prospective teachers, thousands of other qualified students are exposed to the possibility of college teaching careers through the efforts of the Foundation's 100 regional selection committee members and 700 campus representatives. Furthermore, by its close contacts with graduate schools, the Foundation serves as a clearing house for information about the current practices and future plans in graduate education.³⁴

For the year 1958-59, 180 fellowships were awarded to 106 men and 74 women in English, the largest group of awards for graduate students in a single subject. For 1959-60, 248 fellowships were awarded to students preparing to teach college English. Again these constituted by far the largest single group of fellows.

Still another encouraging sign that colleges and universities are awakening to the need for finding and keeping college teachers is *The College Teacher*, distributed in 1959 by 249 institutions to convince 2,250,000 alumni of the great need of improving faculty salaries:

The circumstance is a strange one. In recent years Americans have spent more money on the trappings of higher education than ever before in history. More parents than ever have set their sights on a college education for their children. More buildings than ever have been put up to accommodate the crowds. But in the midst of this national preoccupation with higher education, the indispensable element in education—the teacher—somehow has been overlooked. The results are unfortunate—not only for the college teachers, but for college *teaching* as well, and for all whose lives it touches. If allowed to persist, present conditions could lead to so serious a decline in the excellence of higher education that we would require generations to recover from it. Among educators, the problem is the subject of current concern and debate and experiment. What is missing, and urgently needed, is full public awareness of the problem—and full public support of measures to deal with it.³⁵

This interest within the profession and the public should in time produce noticeable results. But a stubborn fact confronts all

³⁴ Woodrow Wilson National Foundation Report for 1957-58, p. 1.

³⁵ *The College Teacher*, 1959, p. 5. This special issue was made possible by the American Alumni Council and in part by funds granted by the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

present efforts to recruit enough college teachers. Apart from the problem of *how* to convince students to become teachers is an even greater problem. Paradoxically, just at the time when the age group of those soon to be in college is increasing rapidly, the age group of persons 20 to 34 years old, from among whom college teachers must now be recruited, is increasing least. According to the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Statistics, the following increases in the various age groups occurred during the years 1940-1960:

Table 2

PER CENT INCREASE IN VARIOUS AGE GROUPS IN THE
POPULATION FROM 1940 TO 1960 ³⁶

<i>Age Group</i>	<i>Per Cent Increase</i>
0-10	73
10-19	27
20-34	3
35-44	31
45-54	35
55-64	48
65 and over	75

The age group that will comprise the college students in the 1970's has increased 70 per cent more than the age group that will have to supply the teachers. The colleges cannot merely hope to get by until a sizable proportion of the next age group, 10-19, is in college and recruitable. As has been shown, vigorous, well-planned recruiting must proceed at once among present undergraduate and graduate men and women if the supply of teachers is not to continue to fall disastrously behind the demand. A student recruited now may take a decade to become a college teacher with a Ph.D.

Encouraging indeed, however, is the evidence of undergraduates' growing interest in graduate study and college teaching. More than half the students graduated from the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences at the University of Illinois in June, 1961, planned to continue their studies in graduate schools.³⁷ Of

³⁶ As quoted in *Expanding Resources for College Teaching*, p. 12.

³⁷ *The Summer Illini*, July 27, 1961, p. 6.

freshmen who entered Stanford University in September, 1960, 85 per cent of the men and 60 per cent of the women plan graduate and professional study; 75 per cent of the class plan to get a master's degree. Nearly 60 per cent of the men and 25 per cent of the women intend to work for an advanced degree requiring at least three years of graduate study. More than one of every three men in this group listed the Ph.D. as his objective. Most of them also indicated their intention to prepare for some combination of "college teaching and/or research."³⁸ Presumably, the findings in these two studies represent a rather general increase in the number of undergraduates planning to enter graduate schools. Particularly promising is the number of freshmen considering careers as college teachers. As previously shown, early planning for a career in college teaching was not characteristic of many present members of college faculties.

A NEGLECTED SOURCE OF NEW TEACHERS

An important but neglected source of new college teachers is undergraduate women. Granted, the potential of this source is limited by such powerful counter attractions as early marriage, parenthood, and careers in an increasing number of occupations. In many institutions, however, hiring policies themselves discriminate against and discourage talented women who might otherwise prepare for careers as college teachers.

Some institutions, it is true, recognize the need to employ more women. In the NEA study of teacher supply and demand for 1959-61, 813 or 74.9 per cent of the four-year colleges and universities and 361 or 68.1 per cent of the junior colleges reported that qualified women might be employed in larger numbers as college teachers. Of the four-year institutions, 139 reported that more women might be hired to teach English. Although 73 junior colleges reported similarly, this number represents only one in eight as being willing to hire more women to teach English, even though women are generally accepted as teachers of English in high

³⁸ John D. Black, "Some Comments Regarding the Aptitudes, Aspirations, and Education of Stanford Undergraduates" (Unpublished report, Counseling and Testing Center, Stanford University, October, 1961), dittoed, 9 pages.

schools, the major source of new full-time junior college teachers.³⁹

If, however, these institutions wish to increase this source of new teachers, they will have to do much more to encourage women to prepare for college teaching. Whereas four-fifths of all public elementary school teachers and more than one-half of the public high school teachers are women, only about one-fourth of college and university teachers are women. Of these, the majority teach home economics, library science, and women's physical and health education. The number in all other departments constitutes only ten per cent of the faculties of colleges and universities throughout the country. In discussing this discrimination, Caplow and McGee state: "Women tend to be discriminated against in the academic profession, not because they have no prestige but because they are outside the prestige system entirely and for this reason are of no use to a department in future recruitment," and "women scholars are not taken seriously and cannot look forward to a normal professional career."⁴⁰

J. P. Elder, dean of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences, Harvard University, supports this appraisal in his report, *A Criticism of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences in Harvard University and Radcliffe College from Those Who Took the Ph.D. at These Institutions Between 1950 and 1954*. In analyzing the teaching careers of men from Harvard and women from Radcliffe, Elder points out the inferior status of women in institutions of higher education. For example, whereas 37 per cent of the men had had no experience as teaching fellows before completing the Ph.D., 48 per cent of Radcliffe women had, presumably, been unable to get this preliminary teaching experience. Elder says that this apparent discrimination among graduate students "has direct bearing not only on the matter of money but—highly important—training for future teaching, and this unbalance should be swiftly corrected."

³⁹ NEA, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959-60 and 1960-61*, pp. 22, 23, 24, and 38.

⁴⁰ Theodore Caplow and Reece J. McGee, *The Academic Marketplace* (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1958), pp. 111, 226.

About the teaching careers of the men and women in the Harvard study, Elder says:

The only other noteworthy differences between the Harvard and Radcliffe groups have nothing to do with our educational programs but with what happens later to the Ph.D.'s who teach. These differences would not be mentioned here, then, save for the fact that they should alarm and fire those interested in the academic careers of women. They concern *where* the Ph.D.'s teach, and *ranks* they hold.

In reply to the questions "Positions held since completing residence,"—teaching, industry, business, government, etc.—32 per cent of all the Harvard Ph.D.'s are teaching in major private or state universities, but only 20 per cent of the women. Again, 15 per cent of the men are teaching in liberal arts colleges, but 26 per cent of the women. This is not news, of course, but at least it is concrete documentation.

And we have documentation, too, for a more disturbing situation: the relative slowness with which women are promoted (or with which women's colleges advance their staffs!). At the same time when the returns came in, of the Ph.D.'s now in college teaching and administration, the following percentages held:

	Harvard	Radcliffe
Instructors	12.3%	30.2%
Assistant Professors	50.8%	27.9%
Associate Professors	21.5%	16.3%
	84.6%	74.4%

(The differences between the totals and 100 per cent consists of a few professors, a large number of lecturers, 2 or 3 deans, and the like.) The disparity speaks for itself; *satis superque*.⁴¹

The effects of these discriminatory practices and related factors are seen in the sharp drop from the number of women who qualify for the master's degree to those who earn the doctorate. Of the 2,527 M.A.'s in English and literature conferred in 1958-59, women received 1,278, slightly more than one-half. Of the 373 Ph.D.'s in English and literature earned that year, women received 65, about one-sixth.

⁴¹ *A Criticism of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences in Harvard University and Radcliffe College . . .*, pp. 24-25.

The trend in the number of Ph.D.'s conferred in English is not yet sufficiently accelerated to indicate that the universities will soon be producing, with advanced preparation, the estimated 29,000 *new* full-time English teachers needed by colleges and universities throughout the 1960's. If the number of candidates qualifying for the earned doctorate is to be doubled by 1970, and if the 2,500 or more new full-time teachers of English needed each year are to have respectable graduate preparation for teaching, departments of English will have to recruit extensively, especially among qualified women. In stressing the importance of recruiting more women for college teaching, the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School states: "Women comprise the greatest potential pool of additional teachers for the future. Colleges and universities should overcome the cultural attitudes which have consigned women to a decided minority in the ranks of higher education, resulting in an enormous waste of brain power and teaching talent."⁴²

SUMMARY

In summary, then, two of the many problems facing institutions of higher education are these: how and where will these institutions get enough new teachers to maintain a reasonable student-teacher ratio for the continuously increasing college enrollment that will total more than 6,000,000 by 1970? The NEA estimates that approximately 29,000 new teachers will be needed in departments of English. The present trend in enrollments in graduate schools and the increasing number of undergraduates planning to do graduate study improve prospects of more college teachers. But if approximately 2,500 new full-time teachers of college English are to be supplied annually, the number of graduate students must be sharply accelerated without sacrificing the quality of candidates or the extent of their preparation.

The questions of how and where these teachers are to be found and prepared can be answered only by the institutions themselves. Through scholarships, fellowships, and paid leaves of

⁴² *Second Report to the President* (Washington: July, 1957), p. 7.

absence talented students and promising members of faculties must be encouraged to prepare for and to continue in college teaching. Institutions should stop discriminating against qualified women as college teachers. Instead, they should encourage talented young women to prepare for careers as college teachers and welcome them as members of their faculties.

PROVIDING QUALITY IN COLLEGE TEACHING

Decrease in Graduate Training. Surveys of graduate preparation completed by beginning, full-time college teachers employed during 1953-61 reveal one consequence of the growing gap between the limited supply of and the demand for qualified college teachers. During 1953-54, in 637 degree-granting institutions, 40.5 per cent of full-time staff members held earned Ph.D.'s, 20.0 per cent had a master's degree plus at least one additional year of graduate study, 28.2 per cent had a master's degree, and 10.4 per cent had less than a master's degree.⁴³

In their search for new teachers, many colleges and universities are having to apply lower standards in the amount of formal study completed. In 1953-54, two-fifths of the full-time teachers and about one-third of the new teachers held earned doctorates, but in 1960-61 only one in four of the beginning teachers had completed the degree. In 1953-54 only one in ten had not completed a master's degree, but in 1960-61 one in six of the new full-time teachers held less than a master's degree.⁴⁴ The Fund for the Advancement of Education deduces from these and other data that by 1970 "the proportion of all college teachers with a Ph.D. may decline to roughly 20 per cent. Our colleges will find it impossible in the course of the next 15 years to hire new teachers of the same average quality and educational preparation as their present faculty in great enough numbers to maintain present student-teacher ratios. This means that the typical

⁴³ NEA Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Colleges and Universities, 1955-56 and 1956-57* (Washington: NEA, 1957), p. 17. Also in *Teachers for Tomorrow*, p. 25.

⁴⁴ NEA, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959-60 and 1960-61*, p. 11.

college student in 1965 or 1970 will certainly encounter fewer really able teachers than today's student."⁴⁵

Each year during the studies, the number of beginning full-time teachers of English constitutes the largest group representing a single department. Unfortunately, this group shows a greater decline in the amount of graduate preparation than do the new teachers of any other large department. If these data apply in the larger institutions chiefly to the freshman English staff, the effects are then reflected in the quality of instruction offered to two-thirds or more of all students enrolled in a particular English department. The table on page 489 shows the number of new English teachers hired during 1953-61 and the percentage representing the highest and lowest levels of graduate preparation.

Table 3 shows that during the years 1953 through 1961, the per cent of new full-time English teachers having the earned doctorate decreased from 29.0 per cent to 13.6 per cent, a drop of 53 per cent. At the same time, the per cent of English teachers having less than a master's degree increased from 8.0 per cent to 11.6 per cent, a jump of 45 per cent. If the statistics for the 530 public and nonpublic junior colleges are included, the decrease in preparation is even more apparent.⁴⁷ To offset the effects of this trend, many departments of English have developed programs of instruction and supervision to improve teaching, particularly among younger members of the faculty. Nevertheless, under present and foreseeable circumstances, the problem of recruiting enough well-qualified teachers is especially grave and can only worsen.

Table 4 (see the Appendix) provides further sobering evidence that no department of English, whatever the type of institution, can afford to be complacent about its supply of future teachers. From 1955 through 1961 the downward trend in graduate preparation of beginning teachers of English continued to affect each of the eleven types of degree-granting colleges and universities participating in these NEA studies.

Table 4 shows that during the years 1955-61 the beginning full-time teachers of English who had completed the Ph.D.

⁴⁵ *Teachers for Tomorrow*, p. 25.

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 32-33.

Table 3
NEW FULL-TIME TEACHERS OF ENGLISH HIRED AND PER CENT HAVING HIGH
AND LOW LEVELS OF PREPARATION ⁴⁶

	1953-54		1954-55		1955-56		1956-57		1957-58		1958-59		1959-60		1960-61	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
New full-time teachers of English hired by degree-granting institutions* by years:	373	8.7	380	8.0	609	9.6	800	9.6	797	8.6	805	8.9	912	8.9	1054	9.4
holding earned doctor's degree		29.0		23.4		18.9		17.7		16.8		13.7		13.6		13.6
holding less than master's degree		8.0		8.2		8.4		11.6		13.2		12.2		9.6		11.6

⁴⁶ NEA, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959-60 and 1960-61*, pp. 10-11.

* 656 institutions in 1953-55; 827 institutions in 1955-57; 936 institutions in 1957-59; 1085 institutions in 1959-61.

constituted the smallest or next to the smallest group of full-time English teachers hired by the eleven types of institutions. Fewer than one in ten of the new English teachers hired by the junior colleges had the earned doctorate. English teachers who had completed only the M.A. were the largest group hired by all institutions. In six types of institutions this group comprised more than half of the new English teachers hired in 1959-61. In ten, the M.A. group was more than double the number of those with the doctorate. Obvious, too, is the general increase in the number of new teachers with only the bachelor's degree.

Table 5 (see the Appendix) shows that the decline in the amount of graduate study completed by new teachers of college English had occurred also in the preparation of new full-time college teachers generally. Disturbing as the overall decline in preparation completed by beginning college teachers may be, the general decrease, as pointed out earlier, is not nearly so severe as that in the preparation of beginning teachers of college English.

The administrative officers of 826 or 76.1 per cent of the institutions participating in the study of 1959-61 said they believe the shortage of qualified teachers will become more critical in the years ahead.⁴⁸ The NEA's findings are confirmed by the results of McGrath's study of the quantity and quality of college teachers.⁴⁹ Information sent him by administrative officers of 503 liberal arts colleges shows their increasing difficulty in finding adequately prepared teachers and their reservations about the competence of those already engaged. The administrators in 86.3 per cent of the colleges stated that difficulties in finding teachers will "inevitably increase."

The NEA's studies show another trend resulting from the increasing shortage of available qualified teachers. Although graduate schools have traditionally been the major source of new college teachers, the proportion of new teachers coming from this source has dropped from 51 per cent in 1953-55 to 46.3 per cent in 1959-61. The range was from 52.6 per cent employed by the large nonpublic colleges to 36.8 per cent employed by teachers colleges. Graduate schools are still the major source producing

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

⁴⁹ Earl J. McGrath, *The Quantity and Quality of College Teachers*, p. 5.

new college teachers. The second largest source is the corps of high school teachers. The most indicative development during 1953-61 was the willingness or necessity of institutions to hire full-time college teachers with only a baccalaureate degree. During 1959-61, 4.3 per cent of the new teachers began full-time college teaching with only this minimum preparation.⁵⁰

Admittedly, colleges and universities have always hired beginning teachers who have less than the Ph.D. degree; yet a sufficient number of those without the degree managed somehow to complete it and later qualify for tenure. But two forces are now working against the possibility that the usual percentage will eventually complete the degree. First, not only do more new teachers need time to work on their degrees, but also more have farther to go. Second, this growing number of teachers will need released time from teaching for graduate study just at the time when expanding enrollments will create greater pressure for keeping teachers in the classrooms as instructors. This pressure, coupled with the expense for individuals and institutions in financing leaves of absence for continuing graduate study, may for a long time, if not permanently, prevent these instructors from completing requirements for advanced degrees. The 1,085 institutions participating in the NEA's study reported 3,589 members of their faculty on leave during 1960-61 to engage in advanced study, only about two per cent of all full-time teachers in these institutions.

In concluding its discussion of the prospects of full-time teachers continuing graduate study and the various ways of their doing so, the Research Division writes:

. . . The overriding question is this: Can the American higher education enterprise meet its enormous responsibilities to our national future with the quality of teaching staff it is able to maintain?

For many administrators this is the heart of the staffing problem. New teachers with insufficient formal academic backgrounds are accepted, more often than for any other reason, because funds are not available to go into the highly competitive market and attract candidates with better preparation. On the other hand, the presence of these partially prepared teachers calls for more institu-

⁵⁰ NEA, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959-60 and 1960-61*, pp. 18-19.

tional funds to assist them in further study. Leave with pay costs money. Leave without pay is a broad invitation to seek a new post on another campus.

This is the dilemma of many presidents and deans as they seek to strengthen the quality of instruction in the university and college classrooms. . . .⁵¹

The master's degree has long been considered merely, for prospective college teachers, a preliminary exercise and proving ground enroute to the doctorate. But in view of present and future needs, the M.A. may now have to be reevaluated, redesigned, and accepted as the terminal degree for an increasing number of full-time college teachers, especially English teachers. The Committee on Policies in Graduate Education says in its report, "If the M.A. were of universal dignity and good standing, . . . this ancient degree could bring us succor in the decade ahead. . . ." ⁵²

If, however, the M.A. be reinvested with its ancient dignity and then recognized as a terminal degree for many college teachers, the institutions will have to reexamine policies governing the promotion and tenure of full-time teachers who have completed only the M.A. Concomitantly they may also have to establish inservice training programs to help beginning instructors not only in their teaching but, equally important, in their continuing academic study.

At least three other consequences seem to be results of these rapidly changing conditions. One, many more colleges and universities are now conferring some kind of doctor's degree. Although only fifteen universities still produce annually more than one-half of the Ph.D.'s, almost 200 institutions now have programs leading to a doctor's degree. In the decade between 1946 and 1956, the number of institutions granting the earned doctorate increased from 93 to 162.⁵³ And the number is still grow-

⁵¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 26-27.

⁵² As quoted in "Will We Run Out of College Teachers?" *The College Teacher*: 1959, p. 9. (This publication is a special issue of an alumni magazine prepared by nineteen alumni editors as a joint publishing effort and was released in April, 1959.)

⁵³ A. J. Brumbaugh, ed., *American Universities and Colleges, 1948* (Washington: ACE, 1948), pp. 59-60. Mary Irwin, ed., *American Universities and Colleges, 1956* (American Council on Education, 1956), pp. 67-68. According

ing. A second consequence may be the gradual increase of existing degree programs designed specifically for candidates preparing for college teaching. Third, graduate schools and foundations are concerned over both the unduly long period, commonly from five to ten years, required to complete the Ph.D. and the consequent high mortality rate. Some universities and foundations are seeking ways to shorten the program and to stipulate a time for its completion.

The facts already available certainly seem to justify the prediction that by 1970 the percentage of college teachers who have completed the doctorate will have dropped from the 40.5 per cent in 1953-54 to approximately 20 per cent. Moreover, Welle-meyer and Lerner warn that by 1970-75 "half of the present college faculties will have reached the retirement age and the younger half by that time will have been augmented by a new teaching force of about three times their number. These new recruits will guide our oncoming youth during the closing decades of the present unhappy century."⁵⁴ When present faculties talk about training college teachers for the future, they are actually talking about preparing future colleagues who will soon outnumber present teachers by 3 to 1.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD TEACHER

Student reactions to the profession of college teaching have already suggested characteristics of successful and respected teachers. Who is a good teacher? The answer is complicated by the immeasurability of the teaching process, by the subjectivity of student opinions, and by, as the President's Commission warned, the "endless, unpredictable ways" in which effective teachers differ. But 142 books and articles in Eells' bibliography on the

to this reference, 179 accredited and 20 nonaccredited institutions conferred earned doctorates in 1956. *Statistics of Higher Education, 1955-56*, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States (Washington: U. S. Dept. of HEW, 1958), p. 96.

⁵⁴ J. F. Wellemeyer, Jr., and Pauline A. Lerner, "Higher Education Faculty Requirements in the Humanities and Sciences, 1952-1970," *School and Society*, 78 (November 14, 1953), 151.

qualifications of college teachers and teaching show the widespread interest in the subject.

In discussing this aspect of recruiting, W. H. Cowley said:

It is not a unitary problem since higher educational institutions need the services of a variety of teachers, each group having different characteristics. We must recruit people to teach in graduate schools, to teach in professional and technical schools, to teach in liberal arts colleges, and to teach in junior colleges. I think that the most important thing I have to say on the topic of recruitment, therefore, is that I hope we will recognize that this is not a single problem, but, instead, a multiple problem with many facets.⁵⁵

This important aspect was also stressed by the President's Commission on Higher Education:

A word of warning derives from the observation that good teachers will never be identical. They may differ in endless, unpredictable ways, yet together may form an admirable faculty. This is possible because the students also display a variety of human traits and cannot all be reached and moved by the same approaches. Skillful selection acknowledges differences in persons and situations; locates and defines the competencies of staff members in terms of the people with whom they are to deal, the environment in which they are to work, and the objectives toward which they are to strive. Having selected its faculty, the institution should be very imaginative and experimental in devising new ways and means for developing further the competencies needed.⁵⁶

As the more than 1,800 institutions of higher education in the United States show great diversity, faculties should represent a corresponding diversity.

Diversity does not imply ineffectuality. Too many college teachers are vulnerable to the harsh criticism of Harry J. Carman, former dean of Columbia College, Columbia University:

. . . The university graduate who is awarded his Ph.D. is recommended for college teaching on his promise as a scholar. Clearly,

⁵⁵ *Expanding Resources for College Teaching*, pp. 6-7.

⁵⁶ *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Volume IV, "Staffing Higher Education," A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education (Washington, 1947), p. 35.

the basis of this recommendation is that he who knows his subject can teach—a belief that persists despite the fact that observation and experience, as Dr. Paul Klapper (University of Chicago) has frequently remarked, clearly reveal its fallacy. What have been the consequences? Our college staffs are weighted with well-meaning but often dull and routine people, some of whom should not be in the teaching profession—many of them do not know how to teach. Dr. Klapper puts it succinctly: when one visits the classroom of these so-called “teachers,” he is impressed with the aimlessness of performance. The only express purpose the observer can discover is to fill the interval from bell to bell with another segment of the subject matter of the course, which the student can and should acquire for himself. Here indeed is human wastage.⁵⁷

To say what a good teacher is not is often easier than to say what he is. Dean Carman identifies the qualifications he thinks the liberal arts professor should have:

First, every liberal arts teacher should have a broad knowledge of his own and related fields. We need to know the basic elements of our culture . . . there should be broad preparation in general education. Such preparation . . . might well be made a prerequisite for admission to graduate study.

In the second place, our liberal arts colleges want teachers who are persons of attractive personality, insight, sensitiveness, and perspective. . . . We need teachers who have moral strength, a sense of beauty of spirit, the seeing eye, the watchful soul, the inquiring mind. We want teachers who are free of conventional prejudices and fears and who are articulate and skillful in conversation.

Teaching is a profession as well as an art and I would therefore have every liberal arts teacher have broad acquaintance with his profession. This should include the place of the profession in our social-cultural pattern, problems and objectives of higher education, methods of testing and evaluation, criteria for the appointment and promotion of faculty members, guidance problems of youth, new findings in learner psychology, and opportunities for self-improvement.

Finally, the liberal arts teacher should . . . have a . . . competence in a chosen field. There is no substitute for mastery of one's

⁵⁷ Harry J. Carman, “The Preparation of Liberal Arts Teachers,” *The Preparation of College Teachers*, pp. 16-21 *et passim*.

subject and sound training in teaching techniques, but mastery of one's subject without skills and techniques of imparting it to others is like good seed which falls on barren ground. . . . We must rid ourselves of the notion that the liberal arts teacher has nothing to gain from a prior knowledge of teaching problems, including counseling and methods, or from supervised apprenticeship training. If there is a place in our social order for medical interns, there is one for teacher interns.

The opportunity for the graduate schools of this country to do something constructive in the preparation of the type of teacher every liberal arts college should crave is almost limitless.⁵⁸

Eddy has drawn up characteristics of the effective teacher:

. . . The good teacher knows and likes his subject together with knowing and liking his student. Beyond this, he devotes himself assiduously to reducing his own ignorance, while never hesitating to make known to the student the commitment in his discipline which he avows. His particular commitment may change. The fact that it might change, however, does not alter his obligation to tell where he stands at the same time he gives all points of view. The example of the man devoted to learning and with a passionate concern for excellence serves the student well. If, to this, may be added the force of personal conviction, the scene is set both for the higher levels of learning and for the sound development of character.⁵⁹

A statement by William W. Turnbull, vice president of Educational Testing Service, supports Eddy's findings on the importance of the personality of the teacher:

The studies of teaching effectiveness almost uniformly call attention to one factor that seems to be crucial at least in student judgments of the effectiveness of instruction, and that is a permissive, friendly, sympathetic, interested manner as contrasted with a cold, sarcastic, belittling attitude. So if we are to give any credence to students' judgments of the conditions under which they blossom, the college teacher's role as a friend and counselor assumes great importance.⁶⁰

⁵⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 16-21.

⁵⁹ Eddy, *op. cit.*, pp. 53-54.

⁶⁰ William W. Turnbull, "Making the Most of a Scarce Resource," *Expanding Resources for College Teaching*, p. 93.

College students seem to know not only what their professors are but also what they would like them to be. Student reactions vary, however, according to the campus locations. A survey of 6,600 students at Brooklyn College in 1947 showed an urban slant. By "significant percentages" they listed these attributes as most important: systematic organization of material, ability to explain clearly, expert knowledge of subject, ability to encourage thought, and enthusiastic attitude toward subject. By similar percentages those attributes least important were pleasing personality, tolerance toward student disagreement, sympathy toward students, good speaking ability, and fairness in making and grading tests.⁶¹

This rating of attributes contrasts with preferences reported by students in other kinds of institutions. Caplow and McGee report in *The Academic Marketplace* that urban institutions, in selecting faculty members, are relatively indifferent to instructors' personal qualifications. Staff compatibility is less important to them than it is to institutions in smaller communities.⁶²

Is there any consensus about essential traits of the effective college teacher? Is he scholarly? He has superior achievement in his subject as well as a broad general education and interests. Is he professional? He cooperates actively in his professional organizations and is sensitive to problems of contemporary society. Is he zealous? He teaches with force and conviction; his sincerity commands the respect of his students.

If these qualities make a good teacher, colleges know what to look for in searching for new recruits.

As an outgrowth of his study of 284 institutional programs for recruiting candidates to prepare to teach, Ness mentions some obvious characteristics of the group in which they should be sought:

In as much as the future college teacher is likely to be a student whose academic abilities are above average, we may expect no particular difficulty in identifying the initial group from whom he will

⁶¹ As reported by Richard J. Medalie, vice president (in 1950), U. S. National Student Association, "The Student Looks at College Teaching," *The Preparation of College Teachers*, p. 50.

⁶² Caplow and McGee, *op. cit.*, p. 162.

be selected. For the most part he identifies himself as a member of this "elite corps" through his aptitude for study, his interest in his particular subject field, and his innate qualities of leadership.⁶³

Earl J. McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education in 1950, stressed the following criteria for selecting teacher candidates:

First, (prospective college teachers) should be selected in terms of their interest in teaching and in terms of qualities of the mind and of character that appear to be associated with good teaching. Candidates for teaching degrees should be carefully selected on the basis of objective information concerning their aptitude for teaching, such as aptitude test scores, academic records, and reports on previous teaching experience. Since good students do not invariably make good teachers, such records should be supplemented by information obtained in interviews conducted by master teachers. These conversations should not only produce additional evidence of the student's aptitude for teaching; they should also provide an opportunity to discuss with the student the life of a teacher and the qualities of mind and personality required in successful teaching. The factors which at present are given greatest weight in an application for admission to a graduate school are the student's earlier record in courses in a single academic field and the recommendation of a recognized scholar in that field. No indication appears in published literature of graduate schools that the applicant's aptitude for college teaching is given any consideration, or even investigated. Until admission standards and procedures recognize the vocational objectives of teachers, the selection of students most likely to succeed in a college teaching career must be, as it is now, purely accidental.⁶⁴

The research for prospective teachers, then, should be more than a mere corralling of numbers. It should be a search for talent.

GENERAL SUMMARY

Present and future circumstances of college teaching pose perplexing problems for institutions preparing college teachers. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, Ivey predicts that the shortage of teachers and related factors will during the next fifteen

⁶³ *The Role of the College in the Recruitment of Teachers*, p. 24.

⁶⁴ Earl J. McGrath, "Graduate Work for College Teachers," *The Preparation of College Teachers*, p. 35.

years "force complete revolution of the role of the faculty member and the teaching process in American colleges and universities." Although no one can be sure at this point, of course, just what future conditions may be that teachers should be prepared to meet, certainly the circumstances presented throughout this chapter and their portents for the future cannot be ignored by the departments of English. The increasing rate at which graduating seniors are being hired as new full-time teachers of college English affects many departments of English both as educators and employers of these beginners. The preparation of teachers of college English is not the exclusive responsibility of departments in graduate schools.

The Ph.D. has traditionally symbolized the preferred preparation for college teachers. Originally the requirements for the degree in American universities suited the purpose of preparing candidates for research. Presently, however, approximately 90 per cent of the candidates for the degree in departments of English intend to become scholar-teachers in the colleges and universities. Hence, the appropriateness of the degree's traditional requirements as qualifications for college teaching has been questioned.

Whatever the questions raised about its suitability in a program for prospective teachers, the degree still signifies the minimum preparation sought by institutions hiring new teachers. But the number of new full-time college teachers earning the Ph.D. has dropped sharply each year since 1953. The loss in preparation is most severe among beginning teachers of English. Thus, departments of English must directly recruit prospective college teachers from among qualified undergraduate and graduate students, including women. If the 1953 ratio of 40 per cent of college teachers with doctorates is to be restored, graduate schools will annually have to produce for college teaching at least three times as many Ph.D.'s as they are at present.

Programs of recruiting and training should correlate with defined characteristics of the effective teacher and his professional roles. The programs should reflect research evidence on why people enter and leave the profession. In short, the departments of English must assume full responsibility for remedying the ominous deterioration in the preparation and supply of beginning

teachers. They must recognize the seriousness of the conditions, establish realistic methods of persuading qualified men and women to become teachers of college English, and make sure their undergraduate and graduate programs actually prepare candidates to be scholar-teachers.

Departments of English cannot expect to come in only at the end of this cycle—employing graduating seniors and graduate students to serve as full-time teachers. If they wish to reverse deterioration in the extent and quality of preparation of the beginning teacher, they must start the entire process. Only by energetically recruiting for the profession qualified undergraduate men and women can they expect to find in good time an adequate supply to bring back to their departments.

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Table 4
NUMBER AND PER CENT OF NEW, FULL-TIME ENGLISH TEACHERS, BY SEX, HIRED AT EACH
LEVEL OF PREPARATION, 1955-59¹

Types and Number of Institutions	Total New Teachers		Number and Per cent of New English Teachers Having:				Less than M.A.			
			Doctor's Degree		M.A. plus 1 year		M.A.			
	Tot.	M	Tot.	M	Tot.	M	Tot.	M	Tot.	M
<i>State Unius.</i>										
1955-7 (67 schools) (Per cents)	361	263	98	8	84	68	15	166	107	59
1957-9 (72 schools) (Per cents)	455	325	130	8.2	23.3	26.2	15.3	46.0	40.7	60.2
1959-61 (90 schools) (Per cents)	534	381	153	13	110	89	21	215	139	76
				10.0	24.2	27.4	16.1	47.2	42.7	58.5
				7.5	13.0	10.3	27	281	180	101
				14.1	24.3	27.0	17.6	52.6	47.3	66.0
<i>Nonpublic Unius.</i>										
1955-7 (80 schools) (Per cents)	200	157	43	33	27	6	15	92	74	18
1957-9 (89 schools) (Per cents)	228	177	51	16.5	17.2	13.9	34.9	46.0	47.1	41.9
				62	44	18	8	87	66	21
				27.2	24.8	35.3	26.3	38.2	37.3	41.2

¹ Teacher Supply and Demand in Colleges and Universities, 1955-56 and 1956-57, pp. 54-71. The data were taken from tables M-Z, and AA, AB, AC, AD.

Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1957-58 and 1958-59, pp. 61-69. Data for 1957-59 were taken from tables E-M, and from tables Q and R, pp. 74-77, and from tables 21 and 22, pp. 33-34.

Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959-60 and 1960-61, pp. 63-71, 76-79, and from tables 19 and 20, pp. 33-34.

APPENDIX

Table 4—Continued

Types and Number of Institutions	Total New Teachers			Doctor's Degree			M.A. plus 1 year			M.A.			Less than M.A.		
	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W
1959-61 (100 schools) (Per cents)	245	186	59	45	38	7	75	62	13	97	69	28	28	17	11
				18.4	20.4	11.9	30.6	33.3	22.0	39.6	37.1	47.5	11.4	9.2	18.6
<i>Municipal Units.</i>															
1955-7 (11 schools) (Per cents)	24	20	4	4	4	..	5	5	..	12	8	4	3	3	..
				16.7	20.0	..	20.8	25.0	..	50.0	40.0	100.0	12.5	15.0	..
1957-9 (11 schools) (Per cents)	47	28	19	8	5	3	10	7	3	25	14	11	4	2	2
				17.0	17.9	15.8	21.3	25.0	15.8	53.2	50.0	57.9	8.5	7.1	10.5
1959-61 (13 schools) (Per cents)	48	32	16	13	10	3	18	12	6	16	10	6	1	..	1
				27.1	31.2	18.8	37.5	37.5	37.5	33.3	31.2	37.5	2.1	..	6.2
<i>Land-Grant Colleges and Universities</i>															
1955-7 (59 schools) (Per cents)	317	215	102	43	36	7	68	50	18	161	99	62	45	30	15
				13.6	16.7	6.9	21.4	23.3	17.6	50.8	46.0	60.8	14.2	14.0	14.7
1957-9 (67 schools) (Per cents)	384	261	123	52	41	11	83	61	22	183	120	63	66	39	27
				13.5	15.7	8.9	21.6	23.4	17.9	47.7	46.0	51.2	17.2	14.9	22.0
1959-61 (59 schools) (Per cents)	313	228	85	42	32	10	56	44	12	180	127	53	35	25	10
				13.4	14.0	11.8	17.9	19.3	14.1	57.5	55.7	62.3	11.2	11.0	11.8
<i>State Colleges</i>															
1955-7 (102 schools) (Per cents)	189	123	66	45	37	8	45	32	13	90	51	39	9	3	6
				23.8	30.1	12.1	23.8	26.0	19.7	47.6	41.5	59.1	4.8	2.4	9.1

Table 4—Continued

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF NEW, FULL-TIME ENGLISH TEACHERS, BY SEX, HIRED AT EACH
LEVEL OF PREPARATION, 1955-1959¹

Types and Number of Institutions	Total New Teachers			Number and Per cent of New English Teachers Having:						Less than M.A.					
				Doctor's Degree			M.A. plus 1 year			M.A.					
	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W
1957-9 (123 schools) (Per cents)	220	146	74	30	21	9	67	49	18	107	70	37	16	6	10
				13.6	14.4	12.2	30.5	33.6	24.3	48.6	47.9	50.0	7.3	4.1	13.5
1959-61 (168 schools) (Per cents)	349	236	113	46	40	6	104	80	24	165	101	64	34	15	19
				13.2	16.9	5.3	29.8	33.9	21.3	47.3	42.8	56.6	9.7	6.4	16.8
<i>Teachers Colleges</i>															
1955-7 (92 schools) (Per cents)	117	74	43	19	13	6	41	28	13	49	29	20	8	44	4
				16.2	17.6	14.0	35.1	37.8	30.2	41.9	39.2	46.5	6.8	5.4	9.3
1957-9 (81 schools) (Per cents)	106	75	31	16	12	4	37	30	7	41	26	15	12	7	5
				15.1	16.0	12.9	34.9	40.0	22.6	38.7	34.7	48.4	11.3	9.3	16.1
1959-61 (70 schools) (Per cents)	113	79	34	15	11	4	33	29	4	60	34	26	5	5	..
				13.3	13.9	11.8	29.2	36.7	11.8	53.1	43.1	76.4	4.4	6.3	..
<i>Nonpublic Colleges (Over 1,000 students)</i>															
1955-7 (84 schools) (Per cents)	143	110	33	32	25	7	46	41	5	53	37	16	12	7	5
				22.4	22.7	21.2	32.2	37.3	15.1	37.0	33.6	48.5	8.4	6.4	15.2
1957-9 (97 schools) (Per cents)	169	111	58	13	10	3	45	35	10	87	52	35	24	14	10
				7.7	9.0	5.2	26.6	31.5	17.2	51.5	46.9	60.4	14.2	12.6	17.2
1959-61 (129 schools) (Per cents)	277	205	72	38	30	8	87	66	21	118	86	32	34	23	11
				13.7	14.6	11.1	31.4	32.2	29.2	42.6	42.0	44.4	12.3	11.2	15.3

Table 4—Continued

Types and Number of Institutions	Total New Teachers		Number and Per cent of New English Teachers Having:												
	Doctor's Degree			M.A. plus 1 year			M.A.			Less than M.A.					
	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W	Tot.	M	W			
Nonpublic Colleges (500-900 students)															
1955-7 (151 schools) (Per cents)	148	84	64	21	14	7	48	30	18	62	30	32	17	10	7
				14.2	16.7	10.9	32.4	35.7	28.1	41.9	35.7	50.0	11.5	11.9	11.0
1957-9 (156 schools) (Per cents)	152	87	65	18	12	6	44	28	16	61	35	26	29	12	17
				11.8	13.8	9.2	29.0	32.2	24.6	40.1	40.2	40.0	19.1	13.8	26.2
1959-61 (225 schools) (Per cents)	224	133	91	21	9	12	64	50	14	105	59	46	34	15	19
				9.4	6.8	13.2	28.5	37.6	15.4	46.9	44.3	50.5	15.2	11.3	20.9
Nonpublic Colleges (Under 500 students)															
1955-7 (214 schools) (Per cents)	118	59	59	23	14	9	23	13	10	47	18	29	25	14	11
				19.5	23.7	15.3	19.5	22.1	16.9	39.8	30.5	49.2	21.2	23.7	18.6
1957-9 (277 schools) (Per cents)	117	45	72	13	5	8	20	10	10	63	23	40	21	7	14
				11.1	11.1	11.1	17.1	22.2	13.9	53.8	51.1	55.6	18.0	15.6	19.4
1959-61 (280 schools) (Per cents)	153	74	79	14	9	5	46	20	26	67	36	31	26	9	17
				9.1	12.2	6.3	30.1	27.0	32.9	43.8	48.6	39.3	17.0	12.2	21.5
Public Junior Colleges (271 schools)															
1957-58	159	96	63	14	10	4	50	32	18	76	48	28	19	6	13
1958-59	185	108	77	15	8	7	48	27	21	106	64	42	16	9	7

Table 4—Continued

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF NEW, FULL-TIME ENGLISH TEACHERS, BY SEX, HIRED AT EACH LEVEL OF PREPARATION, 1955-1959¹

Types and Number of Institutions	Total New Teachers		Number and Per cent of New English Teachers Having:				Less than			
			Doctor's Degree		M.A. Plus 1 year		M.A.		M.A.	
	Tot.	M	Tot.	M	Tot.	M	Tot.	M	Tot.	M
(Per cent of New Eng. Teachers, 1957-59)										
1959-60 (343 schools)	220	128	8.4	8.8	7.9	28.5	28.9	27.8	52.6	54.9
1960-61 (343 schools)	259	145	8	7	1	54	31	23	136	79
(Per cents 1959-61)			18	11	7	69	50	19	153	75
			5.4	6.6	3.9	25.7	29.7	20.4	60.3	56.4
Nonpublic Junior Colleges										
1957-58	48	26	4	2	2	11	7	4	25	12
1958-59	58	34	2	1	1	12	6	6	32	20
(Per cent of New Eng. Teachers, 1957-59)			5.6	5.0	6.5	21.7	21.7	21.7	53.8	53.3
1959-60 (187 schools)	80	51	3	3	..	16	10	6	49	32
1960-61 (187 schools)	103	48	5	2	3	23	13	10	55	24
(Per cents 1959-61)			4.4	5.0	3.6	21.3	23.2	19.1	56.8	56.6
									18.9	20.0
									12	6
									20	9
									17.5	15.2

Table 5

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF ALL FULL-TIME NEW TEACHERS AT EACH LEVEL OF PREPARATION BY TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS, 1953-54 (637 INSTITUTIONS), 1955-56 (827 INSTITUTIONS), 1956-57 (827 INSTITUTIONS), 1957-59 (938 INSTITUTIONS): ²

Types of Schools	No. of Teachers	Doctorate		M.A. plus 1 year or more		M.A.		Less than M.A.		
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
State Univs.										
1953-4: Total	13,507	6,431	47.6	2,556	18.9	3,109	23.9	1,411	10.5	
1955-6: New	1,708	491	28.7	212	12.4	577	33.8	428	25.1	
1956-7: New	2,346	581	24.8	317	13.5	796	33.9	625	27.8	
1957-8: New	2,829	843	29.8	326	11.5	954	33.7	706	25.0	
1958-9: New	2,508	704	28.1	351	14.0	876	34.9	577	23.0	
1959-60: New	3,058	897	29.3	497	16.3	1,070	35.0	594	19.4	
1960-61: New	3,161	938	29.7	461	14.6	1,125	35.6	637	20.1	
Nonpub. Univs.										
1953-4: Total	10,925	5,675	51.9	1,689	15.5	2,287	20.9	1,274	11.7	
1955-6: New	1,035	361	34.9	163	15.7	340	32.9	171	16.5	
1956-7: New	1,299	422	32.5	225	17.3	402	31.0	250	19.2	
1957-8: New	1,500	504	33.6	238	15.9	465	31.0	293	19.5	
1958-9: New	1,576	520	33.0	271	17.2	475	30.1	310	19.7	
1959-60: New	1,775	642	36.2	285	16.0	550	31.0	298	16.8	
1960-61: New	2,022	726	35.9	382	18.9	589	29.1	325	16.1	
Municip. Univs.										
1953-4: Total	1,294	573	44.3	146	11.3	459	35.5	116	8.9	
1955-6: New	136	45	33.1	34	25.0	31	22.8	26	19.1	
1956-7: New	148	38	25.7	35	23.6	39	26.4	36	24.3	
1957-8: New	254	76	29.9	42	16.5	65	25.6	71	28.0	

² *Teacher Supply and Demand in Colleges and Universities, 1955-56 and 1956-57*, pp. 48-49. The data for 1953-57 have been taken from tables F, G, H but have been rearranged to show the trends during those years.

Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1957-58 and 1958-59. The data for those years have been taken from tables 6 and 7, pp. 15-16, and from tables Q and R, pp. 74-77.

Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959-60 and 1960-61, Table B, p. 60; Table Q, pp. 76-77; Table R, pp. 78-79.

Table 5—Continued

Types of Schools	No. of Teachers	Doctorate		M.A. plus 1 year or more		M.A.		Less than M.A.	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1958-9: <i>New</i>	248	60	24.2	45	18.1	94	37.9	49	19.8
1959-60: <i>New</i>	249	76	30.5	63	25.3	61	24.5	49	19.7
1960-61: <i>New</i>	371	111	29.9	93	25.1	105	28.3	62	16.7
<i>Land-Grant Colls. and Universities</i>									
1953-4: <i>Total</i>	12,082	5,129	42.5	1,891	15.6	3,516	29.1	1,546	12.8
1955-6: <i>New</i>	1,497	408	27.3	152	10.1	485	32.4	452	30.2
1956-7: <i>New</i>	2,213	466	21.1	266	12.0	746	33.7	735	33.2
1957-8: <i>New</i>	2,467	709	28.7	237	9.6	801	32.5	720	29.2
1958-9: <i>New</i>	2,179	581	26.7	240	11.0	749	34.4	609	27.9
1959-60: <i>New</i>	2,138	645	30.1	254	11.9	750	35.1	489	22.9
1960-61: <i>New</i>	2,327	694	29.8	267	11.5	821	35.3	545	23.4
<i>State Colleges</i>									
1953-4: <i>Total</i>	7,565	2,458	32.5	1,949	25.8	2,626	34.7	532	7.0
1955-6: <i>New</i>	849	219	25.8	173	20.4	345	40.6	112	13.2
1956-7: <i>New</i>	1,111	274	24.7	223	20.1	466	41.9	148	13.3
1957-8: <i>New</i>	1,397	289	20.7	247	17.7	623	44.6	238	17.0
1958-9: <i>New</i>	1,361	246	18.1	283	20.8	606	44.5	226	16.6
1959-60: <i>New</i>	1,846	387	20.9	435	23.6	777	42.1	247	13.4
1960-61: <i>New</i>	1,811	409	22.6	356	19.7	815	45.0	231	12.7
<i>Teachers Colleges</i>									
1953-4: <i>Total</i>	5,481	1,640	29.9	1,685	30.8	1,979	36.1	177	3.2
1955-6: <i>New</i>	487	103	21.2	112	23.0	212	43.5	60	12.3
1956-7: <i>New</i>	624	98	15.7	156	25.0	277	44.4	93	14.9
1957-8: <i>New</i>	549	107	19.5	142	25.9	238	43.3	62	11.3
1958-9: <i>New</i>	515	102	19.8	128	24.9	239	46.4	46	8.9
1959-60: <i>New</i>	521	83	15.9	132	25.4	245	47.0	61	11.7
1960-61: <i>New</i>	554	88	15.9	142	25.6	239	43.1	85	15.4
<i>Nonpublic Colleges (1,000 or more students)</i>									
1953-4: <i>Total</i>	4,745	1,805	38.0	935	19.7	1,355	28.6	650	13.7
1955-6: <i>New</i>	594	133	22.4	163	27.4	202	34.0	96	16.2
1956-7: <i>New</i>	735	169	23.0	172	23.4	231	31.4	163	22.2
1957-8: <i>New</i>	749	129	17.2	169	22.6	288	38.4	163	21.8
1958-9: <i>New</i>	827	143	17.3	227	27.4	292	35.3	165	20.0
1959-60: <i>New</i>	996	212	21.3	239	24.0	377	37.8	168	16.9
1960-61: <i>New</i>	1,197	256	21.4	303	25.3	441	36.8	441	36.8

Table 5—Continued

Nonpub. Colls.
(500-999 students)

1953-4: <i>Total</i>	5,486	1,968	35.9	1,358	24.7	1,561	28.5	599	10.9
1955-6: <i>New</i>	550	126	22.9	135	24.5	193	35.1	96	17.5
1956-7: <i>New</i>	717	132	18.4	183	25.5	263	36.7	139	19.4
1957-8: <i>New</i>	709	152	21.4	166	23.4	268	37.8	123	17.4
1958-9: <i>New</i>	794	150	18.9	188	23.7	287	36.1	169	21.3
1959-60: <i>New</i>	981	200	20.4	220	22.4	387	39.4	174	17.8
1960-61: <i>New</i>	1,152	203	17.6	293	25.5	446	38.7	210	18.2

Nonpub. Colleges
(Under 500 students)

1953-4: <i>Total</i>	4,439	1,390	31.3	1,173	26.4	1,311	29.6	565	12.7
1955-6: <i>New</i>	432	81	18.8	88	20.4	157	36.3	106	24.5
1956-7: <i>New</i>	634	126	19.9	126	19.9	202	31.8	180	28.4
1957-8: <i>New</i>	603	108	17.9	100	16.6	264	43.8	131	21.7
1958-9: <i>New</i>	686	127	18.5	138	20.1	256	37.3	165	24.1
1959-60: <i>New</i>	609	114	18.7	133	21.8	243	39.9	119	19.6
1960-61: <i>New</i>	779	132	17.0	184	23.6	296	38.0	167	21.4

Public Jr. Colls.
(271 schools)

1957-8: <i>New</i>	1,160	75	6.5	218	18.8	506	43.6	305	26.3
1958-9: <i>New</i>	1,273	105	8.3	242	19.0	587	46.1	339	26.6
1959-60: <i>New</i>	1,658	97	5.9	303	18.3	821	49.5	437	26.3
1960-61: <i>New</i>	1,702	104	6.1	313	18.4	851	50.0	434	25.5

Nonpub. Jr. Colls.
(141 schools)

1957-8: <i>New</i>	348	19	5.5	59	16.9	152	43.7	118	33.9
1958-9: <i>New</i>	380	26	6.9	65	17.1	170	44.7	119	31.3
1959-60: <i>New</i>	474	43	9.1	74	15.6	198	41.8	159	33.5
1960-61: <i>New</i>	572	34	5.9	75	13.1	252	44.1	211	36.9

PREVIEW

THE QUALITY OF THE PROSPECTIVE COLLEGE TEACHER

**THE GENERAL EDUCATION OF THE COLLEGE ENGLISH
TEACHER**

COURSES IN LITERATURE

COURSES IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND IN COMPOSITION

COURSES IN SPEECH

**THE RELATIONSHIP TO THE PREPARATION PROGRAM FOR
SECONDARY TEACHERS**

GENERAL SUMMARY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER 10

The Undergraduate Education of the Future Teacher of College English

THE QUALITY OF THE PROSPECTIVE COLLEGE TEACHER

THOSE WHO TEACH the future teachers of college English are in a happy position at the present time. Not many years ago graduate departments assumed that the most promising students would inevitably go on into business or medicine or law. The profession of English would have to accept the weaker ones, those with less interesting minds, less ability to express themselves, less real enthusiasm for the subject. In a few years' time the situation has changed. Not many families now blanch with apprehension when a son or a daughter aspires to be a college teacher of English. Many graduate departments are crowded, and application forms for Fulbright awards and Woodrow Wilson fellowships seem to flood their offices. Now that colleges and universities are able to demand the best from their students, they should stop to ask what they want their graduates to be as well as what they want them to know.

Undoubtedly the first requisite is that they be humanists. The true humanist loves literature, of course, but he loves it for the

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right reasons. He does not read in order to become a "cultivated man" (though this will be a by-product of his endeavor) or to put on apparel which is more elegant than that worn by an economist or sociologist or to enjoy the pleasure of curling up with a good book. He loves literature because the great poem or play or novel is, in Henry James's phrase, "an act of life." He is ready to defend literature, all his teaching days, as a form of knowledge. He does not call it only one of the decorative arts. He agrees with Sir Philip Sidney, "I conclude, therefore, that (Poetry) excelleth Historie, not onely in furnishing the minde with knowledge, but in setting it forward to that which deserveth to be called and accounted good: which setting forward, and moving to well doing, indeed setteth the lawrell crowne upon the Poet as victorious, not onely of the Historian, but over the Philosopher."

The young teacher needs a sense of the great tradition which he inherits. He has in his keeping the heritage of Chaucer and Shakespeare and Milton, Hawthorne and Melville. To the extent of his ability, he will do them justice. He must not stand in their light or raise his voice above theirs. His students should wish to see Shelley plain. Too often in the past the literary scholar mined "his" author. The remaining gold in Keats was good for five articles and a second monograph. Today, with criticism in the ascendancy, the comparable danger is that the teacher of literature will explicate all the immediacy out of a poem, rinse it dry of his critical detergents, and hang it up stiff on the line.

The best cure for this disease of possessing and using an author is a humility which demands that the teacher forgo comment when he can and let the poet speak for himself. He should wish to read Donne and Eliot aloud so that little comment is necessary. He should aspire to read Shakespeare as magnificently as Sir Laurence Olivier does and as Dylan Thomas did (and still does on records). In some respects this is the supreme test. Can he read the poems so expertly that form and idea leap to the ear, the four (or six) levels of meaning are heard, the tension felt, the wit made visible?

Older members of the profession occasionally sat under "appreciators" of literature in college or graduate school, who,

"show off" or not, wanted their students to experience the poem or the play and delight in the experience. Students who become teachers now will have many more tools in their hands than the appreciators held. They will be grounded in the theory of literature. They will possess all the critical terms indexed in William Elton's "Glossary of the New Criticism" and will be busy inventing some of their own. What they can say—at length—about myth and ritual in literature and the ever present "hero with a thousand faces" would astound the appreciators. But their theory and their terminology are not worth very much unless they can communicate the essential and unique power of each new literary work in the procession. As Yeats defined it:

All things fall and are built again,
And those that build them again are gay.

English majors must have a profound respect for the language they use. When they stand before a class and open their mouths, their sentences should come out well shaped. They must care devoutly about style. In the present academic jungle of the jargons the teacher of literature should never "finalize" or "personalize" anything. He is like the boy with his finger in the dike. If the strain seems at times intolerable, he should remember that one finger did the job. The price of excelling as a master of spoken or written prose will be requests from the administration that he write or rewrite the president's speeches and the pamphlets issued by the development office. Still, this is a worthy service and not to be shunned.

Finally, the prospective teacher of English should show in his life what his daily conversations with greatness have done to him. How can he teach *Lear* if he has never felt the tragic sense of life? How can he lecture on comedy if the proviso scene in *The Way of the World* did not make him laugh out loud when he first read it? Will his lecture on satire hit the mark if his normal geniality has never been shaken by the spectacle of human folly and petty vice he finds in the morning paper? What can he say about *For Whom the Bell Tolls* if no political issue has ever touched him deeply? How can he persuade his students to enjoy Henry James if he does not believe with James, for whom

"literature was a game of skill," that "skill meant courage, and courage meant honour, and honour meant passion, and passion meant life"?

GENERAL EDUCATION

Colleges and universities have long insisted that the teacher of English must be a well-educated person himself. Yet many individuals well aware of deficiencies in their own education nevertheless get by as teachers, and their students often profit from their efforts. Ignorance is not a virtue of course; obviously a broadly and profoundly educated teacher is preferable to a narrowly and shallowly educated one, but, unfortunately, the choice is not so simple. It seems rather to be between breadth or depth, not between both or neither.

The description of the specialist as one who knows more and more about less and less has been neatly capped by the description of the generalist as one who knows less and less about more and more. Encyclopaedism and profound scholarship are no longer compatible, if they ever were, and in an age of specialization and division of labor, higher education especially has been so organized that narrowly educated specialists of different kinds can collaborate in providing a broad education for students. Shallowly educated generalists could not do the job so well and could not direct advanced specialized education at all. Given the choice, depth is preferable to breadth. In the education that leads to the profession of teaching in college, specialization begins in the junior year or earlier and continues through the graduate school and indeed throughout the teacher's entire professional life.

The wisecracks do not apply, really. Those who pursue specialties learn about more and more, not about less and less; but the more and more about which they learn remains for the most part within their professional field. The professor of English pursuing his scholarship learns more about literature, not more about astronomy or economics, except as they bear on literature and except as literature deals with them. When the future profes-

sor of English finishes his undergraduate degree, most likely as an English major, a considerable gap, quite properly, separates his competence in literature from his competence in the sciences and social sciences. As he enhances his competence in literature in graduate school and thereafter, he does not comparably enhance his competence in other fields. He cannot know everything and he chooses to know something well—what he wants to know and what he most needs to know for his teaching. He learns more and more about it. Consequently, as he grows in the profession and continues his lifelong preparation for it, he becomes more of a specialist, more expert in his subject.

He does not in the same systematic way become more of a generalist. Unsystematically, he does, through desultory reading, through association with colleagues who are specialists in other disciplines, through association with students whose enthusiasm is for other disciplines, through demands of his teaching for analogies and illustrations from other fields, through the scholarly requirement that he understand the relationship of his discipline to others, through the demands of his citizenship in a complex society, and from the fact of being an alert, intelligent, curious, and responsible human alive in an exciting world. Of course he does. But he needs a base on which to build, a fund of common knowledge, a vocabulary with which to understand and remember, an understanding of the methods, aims, substance, and limitations of disciplines not his own—enough understanding to give him perspective with which to view his relative ignorance. If he is to have this base on which to build, as a result of formal education, it is as an undergraduate that he must get it. He must be generally as well as professionally educated and the undergraduate college must provide the opportunity.

Teachers have eschewed encyclopaedism, rightly; but some are still likely to view programs of general education as if they were designed to produce a generation of Diderots. This misconception clouds the discussion of general education. It shapes the "survey courses," prepared under the name of general education, in English and in other fields—courses in which too often "coverage" rather than understanding is preferred. It leads to

courses impossible to teach, for students cannot master them. It frustrates appraisal of any achievement, for the implicit goal of encyclopaedic knowledge almost assures failure.

In any plan for the general education of the potential college English teacher (or the potential lawyer, or engineer, or dentist, or housewife), he should learn much; but he will not be a sitting compendium of universal knowledge. General education is not "coverage." General education is general not because it leads to mastery of all knowledge but because it is unspecialized, because it is an appropriate part of everybody's education, and because it aims at generally applicable skills.

For example, the ability to read with maximum insight and understanding is an appropriate aim of a program of general education at any level from elementary school through the intermittent educational activities that continue throughout a lifetime. Writing, speaking, listening (the other "communication arts") are similarly general in their application. So are the mathematical skills of measurement and calculation. A program of general education, then, should go as far as it can in helping students to develop these skills. If they are generally applicable, they will be applicable in the professional and personal life of a college teacher of English and should be part of his education.

General education is not caviar to the general. It is food for all mankind. It should lead to the knowledge that is common to educated man. The educated man in the Western world should not be totally ignorant of Homer or Shakespeare, of Beethoven or Shostakovich. Neither should he be totally ignorant of Copernicus or Harvey, of Adam Smith or Karl Marx, of Aristotle or Freud. In the humanities, knowledge is cumulative. Nothing makes anything else obsolete: Shakespeare does not supersede Sophocles, nor Eugene O'Neill, Shakespeare. In the sciences, however, and in certain branches of the social sciences, knowledge is not essentially cumulative. Newton *does* supersede Copernicus, and Einstein supersedes Newton. A professional scientist can do his job with little knowledge of the history of science, but he must work with frantic haste to keep up with the present. "Modern science" is a body of knowledge in a way in which "modern literature" or "modern criticism" is not. Accordingly,

the work in the sciences and social sciences in a program of general education should have a currency not so essential in the humanities. Conversely, work in the humanities should have an orientation toward the past not so essential in other fields.

The generally educated man, then, is acquainted with, if not familiar with, the landmarks of Western culture. He is sensitive to the arts and not totally ignorant of their history nor of the nature of the aesthetic experience. He knows something of the physical world in which he lives, the biological world of which he is a part, and the society of which he is a member. This is the kind of knowledge indispensable to every "highly educated" man, and to the extent of his capacity and opportunity, desirable for every man. It is general education in the sense that it is generally desirable, as the education of the "common school" is the education that should be common to all.

The college teacher of English must also understand something about history and the social sciences. But the purpose of such courses in the social sciences in a program of general education is not to produce practicing economists, professional politicians, or teachers of history or the social sciences. The goal here again is the competent amateur—the responsible and knowledgeable citizen, the layman aware of another important part of his heritage and in some measure capable of thinking like a social scientist. This is as far as the general education program in the social sciences can hope to take anyone.

The biological and physical sciences are a little different. As a reader, the educated man is in a sense a practitioner of the arts. If he does not create it, when he reads a poem he recreates it. And he should be in some measure a critic. When he listens to a concert or looks at a picture, he is in the same way a practitioner of art and criticism. As a citizen and member of the community he is a powerful and interested but amateur practitioner of the arts of politics. But the layman (except as a hobbyist) is not in the same way an amateur scientist, however much he may be an amateur technologist or craftsman. He needs, if only for his citizenship and his curiosity, acquaintance with this aspect of his heritage, awareness of the present state of science, and knowledge of the vocabulary and basic principles of the major sciences

to remain well informed as scientific and technological advances continue. But because science has a special vocabulary, because scientific knowledge is generative and changing from day to day, and because the layman is not a practitioner of science as he is of art and politics, this is the area in which persons with only general education will remain least expert. But to know enough not to be overawed is important.

If general education is the education which develops generally applicable skills and which inculcates knowledge generally desirable (relevant to all specialties but particularly relevant to none), it will be the same for the potential lawyer or potential housewife or for the potential teacher of English. When it is said that *for the sake of his profession* the college English teacher should be at home in other languages and literature than his own, should have more than common awareness of arts other than literature, should be more of a philosopher and more of a historian than almost anyone except philosophers and historians, and should have mastered the rhetoric of teaching,¹ those knowledges and skills become part of his professional not of his general education. Clearly proficiency and insight into one or more languages and literatures different from one's own are significant aspects of a general liberal education. But the college English teacher needs this kind of knowledge and competence more than other people do, for the sake of his calling. It is thus part of his specialized education.

The only hope of anyone's acquiring both the general and the professional education desirable for a college English teacher, or for any other learned profession, is not to wait until college to begin either general or specialized education, and not to assume that education ends with the end of collegiate or graduate schooling. Elementary schools and high schools teach generally applicable skills and generally desirable knowledge. The high school can also begin the less general education of teachers—with the study of foreign languages, for example. And neither general nor specialized education ends with any diploma. No collegiate program of general education achieves the student's potential as

¹ E.g., the psychology of learning as well as the general psychology that is part of his general education in the biological and social sciences.

an educated man. If the college teacher does not continue to learn all his life, he will be in some measure an ignoramus, and he will not be the example that leads his students to learn. How eagerly, how alertly, how philosophically he continues his general education throughout his professional and personal life depends in part on the quality of his undergraduate education.

No attempt is made here to specify the exact courses a college teacher should have. Different colleges by means of different curricula seek to solve the problem in different ways. Different students with different educational counseling solve or evade it in different ways. Insofar as history, philosophy, foreign languages, and other standard liberal arts courses are concerned, the prospective college teacher should surely complete the same fundamental courses taken by the future high school teacher.² The college, the counselor, or the student who understands the goals can plan the program. The goals are mastery of generally applicable skills, knowledge of the intellectual heritage, acquaintance with the major divisions of human knowledge, and abiding and catholic curiosity. To devote half a college course to achieving these goals will make a good start toward them and leave half a course for specialized study of English and subjects cognate to it. If future English teachers aim at these goals in their undergraduate education and continue to aim at them throughout their lives, they will find themselves not only better generalists but better specialists as well.

COURSES IN LITERATURE

The undergraduate student who anticipates a career as a college English teacher may follow much the same program as the English major who envisions a different career. If the two approaches were not one, they could differ only in purpose, not in content. One might assume that the prospective teacher was reading and assessing literature with his eye on the professional job ahead and that the English major was merely culling the flowers of literature. Obviously, the difference does not exist—the teacher needs the same breadth and depth in reading that one expects of

² See Chapter 5, pp. 233 ff.

the major. What undergraduate courses in literature, then, shall we offer them?

Clearly the cake may be cut in many ways—so it has been, so it will be. What was sacrosanct a generation ago is now unfashionable. The survey course, never offered in certain geographical areas, has now lost its allure even in those areas where it was held in high esteem. Regarded by some teachers as necessary evils, the types and masterpieces approaches are still with us. The death of the period course (the Romantic Movement, the Age of Milton) was predicted nearly ten years ago, though like Swift's Mr. Partridge it has refused to oblige. The single-author courses (Chaucer, Shakespeare, Milton) continue to enchant students, while playing second fiddle to all twentieth century fiction, drama, poetry, and criticism courses unless these courses are themselves single-author courses (Joyce, Frost, Hemingway, Eliot, Faulkner). Courses in literary criticism wane unless they are strictly modern or taught by well-known, practicing writers and critics. Currently the secret for sure success is to announce a course with terms like *myth*, *archetype*, and *symbol* in the title, or to use such terms as *primordial image* or *objective correlative* in the course description. What has been called reservoir (resource or background) literature remains in high esteem, judging from the lip service constantly accorded it, but it does not absorb as much of the prospective college teacher's time as it should. And informal reading courses and honors courses, too often relegated almost solely to the writing of an honors thesis, do not at present realize this immense potential for the bright and alert young man or woman who plans to teach English in college.

The survey course in English literature, sometimes dubbed the historical approach, will probably receive less attention in the years ahead. No one questions for a moment that a college English teacher needs thorough grounding in the chronology of literature and history. This end, however, can be reached in ways other than that detailed preoccupation with chronology which has in the past characterized large blocks of courses. A well-designed program in English and general education in the first two years of college, against a background of good high school courses in English and history, can provide the student with a proper time

perspective without the detailed preoccupation with chronology. A one-semester survey course at the senior level is sometimes desirable for prospective teachers and majors who may have shown weakness in chronology or who need a kind of summary course to bring matters into focus. The survey course in American literature would seem to offer more possibilities since it covers only three centuries as opposed to twelve in English literature. With the present stress on American literature some colleges will no doubt extend the surveys to three semesters, hoping thereby to attain proper coverage without neglecting the masters and the large output in the twentieth century. For those prospective English teachers who have had small opportunity to study the literatures of foreign countries, a two-semester survey course in translation which pays attention to the masters of Western literature is highly desirable though not always possible because of credit demands.

The study of English literary masterpieces would seem to offer advantages during the first two years in the training of the English teacher. Certain questions inevitably pose themselves: Shall it be masters or masterpieces? In each case how many and who or what shall have precedence? If the course deals entirely with masters, it may duplicate later courses in single authors. If it includes masterpieces of world literature, its spread may offer little more than do some of the delightful but inconclusive courses designed for nonmajor students. If it is not carefully planned, it may duplicate materials studied in the secondary school. A representative consideration of twenty English and American authors or of one hundred wisely selected masterpieces in both literatures would seem to constitute a good diet—*representative* rather than *thorough* or *comprehensive* because the student should be taking special courses in Chaucer, Shakespeare, Milton, and others during his last two years. Obviously, a course in masters or masterpieces will respect chronology and history.

Of equal importance are the types courses in literature, whether they be one- or two-semester general types courses during the first two years of study or special types courses (drama, novel, short story, poetry, or biography) during the last two years. A department may elect a course embracing several types of litera-

ture in preference to a course in masters or masterpieces. Provided they do not make up the sole offerings of a department, types courses for upperclassmen are invaluable. They are popular with students, who commonly like to exercise a bias toward a type, say, lyric poetry or tragedy or the short story, and they are easy to arrange chronologically. They are popular with teachers who have specialized in a type of literature and who can work at their best pace with this division of courses. That courses in the plays of Shakespeare or an introduction to poetry or the English novel since Thackeray will disappear from college catalogs is extremely unlikely for many years to come. A department is wise, however, not to allow offerings to become topheavy with types courses.

The single-author courses should continue to be popular and valuable. Convention has stamped the individual course in Chaucer, Shakespeare, or Milton with an approval that seems lasting. Others at a second level may continue to be taught in pairs: Tennyson and Browning, Pope and Swift, Emerson and Thoreau, and so forth. An independent course in Melville or Joyce or Eliot or O'Neill would be warranted perhaps only if the teacher were a recognized specialist in the subject, capable of exercising a distinct virtuosity. The quintet of Romantics will undoubtedly continue to be taught largely as studies of the individual within a period. Faced with limited time and expected to attain considerable coverage, students would normally not profit from a semester's study of a less important writer.

Period courses, those happy hunting grounds of professors with "fields" and of graduate students with area requirements to complete, promise to continue, albeit with decreased emphasis. No longer will lectures on the Elizabethan Age or the Romantic Movement or the Eighteenth Century fill large classrooms as they did in the age of Professors Lowes and Tinker. And yet for smaller groups period courses will persist. The prospective teacher of English seems to gain confidence with a representative list of period courses behind him, and his teachers by and large are convinced that they have arrived when they are allowed to teach their specialty, which is frequently defined chronologically. Period courses will remain, incidentally, because most American graduate schools are not yet organized to function on any other basis.

The course in literary criticism which begins with Longinus and concludes with T. S. Eliot will continue to draw poorly. Although such a course may be extremely valuable, it simply will have few takers. Rhetorical theory for the majority of English teachers seems to have gone the way of Greek. A less irksome diet may include more practical criticism, written and spoken, in masterpiece, types, single-author, and period courses. The course in contemporary criticism will be immensely more popular and, in the hands of a practicing writer and critic, perhaps even more profitable than the traditional course.

Contemporary poetry, fiction, and drama will still attract large groups of students, including prospective teachers. The argument for increased emphasis on these courses is a good one, provided they are not all the courses a student chooses. The passion for modernity has come like a wave and shows no tendency to abate. A very high percentage of our prospective teachers have specialized in twentieth century literature and criticism, mostly American. A stronger interest in the older literature of England and America, however, is evident in the early sixties and will no doubt gain momentum. Again the reasons for this reversal lie partly in the professional demand. The market is saturated with young scholars who profess current American literature as their chief interest; it is clearly running short in some of the older areas, say Chaucer and the seventeenth century. The forces of supply and demand will inevitably balance the situation.

If the average student needs a reservoir of background literature to help him understand and enjoy reading, the prospective teacher of English needs it even more because he will introduce his students to this heritage.³ The importance of such reading has already been discussed with reference to the preparation of the secondary school teacher of English. Included in reservoir literature are the Bible, the mythology and hero stories of Greece, Rome, Germany, and the Orient, folklore, fables (Aesop and others), fairy tales (including Perrault and Andersen and the

³ E.g., this idea appears as Basic Issue number seven in "The Basic Issues in the Teaching of English," *PMLA*, LXXIV (1959), 11-12. This conference report was issued as a reprint by the Modern Language Association of America and appeared as a supplement to each of the three journals of the National Council of Teachers of English in 1959.

Grimms), proverbs, Mother Goose, legends, and ballads. And how could one teach literature without *Pilgrim's Progress*, *Alice*, and the *Arabian Nights*? The order is a big one! Two generations of students, as well as some teachers, have been woefully inadequate in this respect. Yet an intelligent and curious reader often faces the need for reservoir literature. Reference books at hand are better than nothing, but they are mere crutches. Schooling at lower levels can develop much of this background. Four years of college should fill the gaps. Except for especially well-read students, opportunity for directed study of the Bible and mythology, at least, should be made. Since this reading is delightful in itself, part of this requirement might well be satisfied in informal work or in honors work.

Although lack of time and staff and an overabundance of students discourage informal work and honors work, a few institutions have pursued it with commendable success. Others have been satisfied with informal study courses leading to the production of a thesis at the conclusion of the senior year. This latter plan, however, offers no serious check on the quality and quantity of work performed and too often places the emphasis on the thesis, rather than on the reading itself. The young man or the young woman who aspires to teach English in college, if he has received the permission and the blessing of his adviser and of his department, has proved his ability by achieving a superior grade average by the beginning of his junior year. This is the time to encourage him to saturate himself in his chosen subject by reading widely and omnivorously without the constant check of classroom lectures and quizzes. Where the two-semester load averages thirty or thirty-six hours, a minimum of twelve of these hours may be assigned to informal or honors work. The department provides an adviser or a tutor for conferences and direction, and administers a comprehensive examination. In this space of time the student may widen and deepen his reservoir of background literature, he may fill in some of those gaps which formal courses always leave, and above all he will gain the sense of accomplishment that one always feels when working successfully on his own. Many American colleges will not have the funds, even if they have the impulse, to consummate such a scheme, but no

decision could be more important for the college English teacher of the future.

COURSES IN LANGUAGE AND COMPOSITION

Preparation in the English language for secondary school teachers is discussed in detail in Chapter 5. The college teacher of English faces many of the same problems. He is very likely to be assigned the teaching of freshman English, which includes attention, formal or informal, to matters of language, of syntax, of usage. Throughout his professional career, he will be responsible for teaching literature in English. Yet conventional preparation gives him little, if any, instruction in the nature of the English language, even less in the nature of language itself. He is likely to have a course in the history of the English language and perhaps another in traditional grammar and conservative usage. But the survey made in the preparation of the NCTE report, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, revealed that only about 17 per cent of the colleges and universities require the major in English to study modern English grammar. And seldom does he have work in rhetoric and composition beyond freshman English. He is not likely to study advanced composition unless he enrolls in a specialized program for prospective secondary school teachers for whom such work is sometimes required.

LANGUAGE

Traditional preparation in the English language is seriously inadequate, especially in the light of the past half century of scholarship in the language. Deprived of what is now known about the nature of the language, the English teacher is forced to rely largely on his intuitions, which may lead him toward linguistic truths but may be bad and lead him away from them.

Adequate training in language for the prospective English teacher in college should cover the same topics already recommended for study by the prospective English teacher in high

school: the dynamic quality of language, the relation of language and culture, the relation of language to writing, phonetics and phonemics, morphology, syntax, appropriateness in speech and writing, and the historical development of English.⁴

To impart this material in less than three semester courses of three units each seems impossible. A sequence of such courses has already been described in Chapter 5.⁵ Admittedly, the order is a big one. In some institutions, however, part of this material is covered in existing courses: e.g., freshman English. Since preparation for college teaching extends through the M.A. and Ph.D. programs, some of this work may be taken at the graduate level. However scheduling difficulties are solved, the purpose remains the same: not to make the student a linguist but to put him in control of that part of linguistics relevant to the work of an English teacher.

COMPOSITION

The teacher of English must be not only knowledgeable about language but also skillful in its use. But the knowledge is easier to impart than the skill, which comes only from thorough and extensive reading and much disciplined practice in writing. It comes easiest to those who have a good ear and an alert eye and are quick in picking up vocabulary, phraseology, style from the writers they read. It does not come solely from study, however dedicated, of general principles of composition.

This is not to say that courses in composition have no value. They can speed up the process of learning to write if the process is going on elsewhere. The student who reads and writes extensively can profit much from the course on rhetoric or composition which helps him to generalize and objectify his reading experience, pointing out to him what he might learn more slowly by himself. To the student who reads little and writes only his assigned theme a week, the composition course is probably of little help.

The English major, who, one hopes, reads and writes abun-

⁴ For the detailed listing, see Chapter 5, pp. 254-255.

⁵ See p. 256.

dantly, can learn much from courses in composition, given reasonably good conditions. He will have taken, or perhaps been excused from, freshman composition. In addition, he should have an advanced course in composition as a junior or senior. This course should be taught in small sections—ten to fifteen students—so that the students can devote their time mainly to writing and the teacher his to close and careful criticism. In large classes the teacher is often forced to discussion of general principles of writing; such discussion is of dubious value. In small classes attention can center on particular sentences and paragraphs written by students and on searching for the best means of revising and improving them.

Much of what has been said of composition could be repeated for creative writing. That the future novelist is more likely to be found in the classroom than in the garret is at least questionable. On the other hand, creative writing classes need not intend to produce novelists any more than courses in linguistics need intend to produce linguists. Prospective teachers of literature will surely profit from a systematic attempt to produce literature; many will try only if the discipline of a class forces them to do so.

It is therefore desirable that the future teacher of English take a course in creative writing. This is most likely to be a course in writing the short story, for reasons of interest and convenience. However, the objectives of the course can be perhaps even better reached through the writing of poetry, in whose more rigid confines the student may become more vividly aware of the nature of literature and of the language through which it is expressed.

COURSES IN SPEECH

The province of the teacher of English, at whatever level from kindergarten through the graduate school, is the language and literature of the mother tongue. Traditionally the college teacher of English is involved in his earlier years of service chiefly in the required courses in English composition. Typically he is expected to see that his freshmen review their grammar, refresh their grasp of punctuation, construct paragraphs, and outline themes according to some conventional scheme. Perhaps also he can help them

systematically to increase their vocabularies. He may see that they read various selections and from the thought thereby provoked learn to write interesting essays of their own. Finally he conducts them through the orthodox stages of note-gathering, organizing, writing, and annotating a research paper. Throughout this activity, writing is the end, and the written sentence is the norm. Throughout most college work the decisive factors are likely to be written assignments and written examinations.

In consequence of the almost exclusive use of writing as the measure of instruction, if not its principal vehicle, the student of English and the teacher of English alike have emphasized the written language and the printed literature at the expense of spoken discourse, the oral phase of literary study, and the literature of oral communication. The student has studied and has prepared to teach writing, reading, and the interpretation of literature in scholarly and critical essays. He has taken, and has been permitted to take, speaking for granted and has given little attention to it as a subject of systematic study.

However, a student can remedy incompetence in speaking as well as incompetence in writing or reading. Many colleges now require some evidence of proficiency in speech as well as in writing. Some freshman courses in English contain an integral constituent of spoken performance, and in some literature courses a stumbling classroom recitation is as harmful to the student's grade as a garbled answer on a written examination. If English teachers in college are going to maintain their central position in the development of the literate citizen, those college graduates becoming English teachers must equip themselves both to exemplify good oral discourse and to instruct intelligently in oral communication.

As an undergraduate, therefore, the prospective college English teacher should establish or confirm a competence in speaking before audiences; he should learn to read aloud well; and he should establish a sound and serviceable knowledge of English pronunciation. Whenever possible, requirements for the degree should include a basic course in public speaking and a course in oral interpretation. For students deficient in these skills, such work should be mandatory. In programs which do not permit

these requirements for all students, two factors assume crucial importance: the model presented by the English teacher to his students and opportunities in other classes for systematic development of these skills.

Ideally, the college teacher of English acquires a systematic knowledge of the principles underlying these skills, as well as the skills themselves. The optimum curriculum for such a student therefore might include the following courses: (1) Public Speaking; (2) Oral Interpretation of Literature; (3) Phonetics of American English; (4) Group Discussion and the Methods of Conference. Those prospective college English teachers who offer speech as an undergraduate minor may be able to complete all of these courses. Others perhaps can complete at least two—usually as important related courses rather than as part of the major.

1. *Public Speaking*: The basic course in public speaking should put primary emphasis upon preparing and presenting original speeches of information and persuasion. It should involve the study of principles and provide experience in practice, with much attention to finding subjects and materials, to outlining, to principles and ways of developing and supporting ideas, to the psychology of interest and persuasion, and to delivery. The normal mode of delivery should be the extemporaneous (not *impromptu*), with preparation, organization, and even rehearsal, but without committing the speech to memory.

Such a course, if taken in the sophomore year, can both reinforce and extend principles and practices introduced in freshman composition. Although many of the principles and techniques of writing well and speaking well are the same, a speech, as James A. Winans once said, is not simply an essay standing on its hind legs. Nor, one might add, is an essay simply a speech committed to paper. Different emphases, at least, are involved. Hence the special study of oral discourse is necessary if one is to learn to speak well and to know what he is doing. Only by knowing writing and speaking and the similarities and differences between them can one teach others with assurance how to improve their habitual, operative discourse. That is part of the task of the college teacher of English.

2. *Oral Interpretation*: Of the speaking skills necessary for

teaching English at any level, least likely to be satisfactory are those involved in reading literature aloud. Oral interpretation of prose and poetry is recommended not as an art of public performance, but as a means to the full, pleasurable experience and appreciation of literature by the reader and by his listeners. In this course, principal attention should focus upon the literature and upon the resources of voice and speech to "acquire and beget" the fullest possible meaning of the literature. Even when instruction in pronunciation and in vocal management is needed, the interpretation of literature should dominate.

The prospective teacher completing such a course will gain in two ways. First, he will cultivate a resource for teaching, his ability to read aloud. Second, as in no other elementary course in literature and in few advanced courses, he will have time and necessity for thorough, methodical, detailed explications seldom possible in courses where much literature must be surveyed.

3. *Phonetics*: Pronunciation, like spelling, presents problems which the English teacher is likely to deplore or ignore. Although he may know good pronunciation from poor, he is seldom sure enough of his ground to be firm. He should learn to observe language as it is spoken and to recognize the basic principles and phenomena of phonetic change; and he should acquire the techniques for describing and representing speech sounds. Such study will help him become a sensitive and accurate listener and an organized rather than a haphazard teacher of pronunciation. At the same time he will probably become increasingly responsive to the varieties of English and thus a more subtle student of literature.

A course in phonetics which introduces the student to the physiology and physics of pronunciation, to the description and classification of speech sounds, to the use of the International Phonetic Alphabet, to the transcription of connected speech, and to the principal types and dialects of American speech and their relation to British English should serve these ends. Descriptive rather than scientific phonetics should be emphasized. This study may be embraced in the sequence of courses on the English language already discussed or as a separate offering of the speech department.

4. *Group Discussion*: Some years ago Howard Lowry remarked to a Phi Beta Kappa audience that the two greatest misfortunes to strike the academic world in his lifetime have been the mimeograph and the committee. No doubt he spoke not altogether in jest. Nevertheless, both as a pattern of teaching and as a means for conducting institutional and professional affairs, the committee is one of the most common occasions of organized oral communication in the academic world. Participation and leadership in discussion are functions which the college teacher of English should be able both to discharge with skill and to teach to his students. In many respects group discussion is simply public speaking under special circumstances. Many skills are common to both. The differences are sufficiently significant, however, to make regular study of group discussion desirable for the teacher. Many universities offer courses in discussion, firmly based on sound theory. Students who lack experience and training in this area may be encouraged to enroll in such a course.

RELATIONSHIP TO PROGRAM FOR SECONDARY TEACHERS

The undergraduate program for the future teacher of college English is not remarkably different from the program for the future teacher of high school English. To a considerable extent the courses in general education and in literature, language, composition, and speech are the same. However, the prospective college teacher is not completing a substantial block of education courses, nor does he need to satisfy specific certification requirements such as those which limit the teaching minor to a subject taught in high school. Consequently, the undergraduate program for the prospective college teacher of English allows for greater flexibility and greater depth. Thus most students in such programs should be able to extend their studies in related subjects and complete more extensive work in the major field. This is all to the good, for the program of graduate studies in English must be based on a solid and comprehensive undergraduate education.

GENERAL SUMMARY

To clarify issues, recommendations have been discussed under separate headings: general education, literature, language, composition, speech and oral communication. In practice, undergraduate teaching of English is seldom thus separated. Moreover, the recommendations made here must be adapted to fit the widely varying frameworks of undergraduate education. In some institutions, undergraduates preparing for college teaching are not required to complete a minor. In others, the minor is stressed. In still others, students undertake a broad "area" major which includes related courses not traditionally offered in English departments. Actual changes depend upon opportunities for change in each institution and upon existing frameworks within which changes must be made. Here the purpose has been, rather, to outline principles upon which ideal programs should be based. The total number of requirements may not in all cases be practicable; in well-planned programs this number may not be necessary.

Preparation in linguistics may be so apportioned that certain aspects are included in freshman English and the requirements in linguistics in advanced courses may be accordingly reduced. Part of the requirement in speech and in linguistics may be met in a single course since much of the latter is concerned with the oral basis of language. Similarly, if writing is required in all English courses and students are held responsible for high standards of expression, the need for formal courses in composition decreases.

Both general education and specialized education begin, as this and preceding chapters have pointed out, long before matriculation. Increasingly this fact is recognized through Advanced Placement programs, admission with advanced standing, waived requirements, special freshman honors sections offered in lieu of traditional first-year courses. As many high schools prepare students well in composition, so do many in speech. In some schools speech is required of all students; in others, through effective counseling, most students take one or more electives in

speech. Effective screening in freshman courses may serve to identify those who need additional work in order to speak distinctly, to read well, to hold intelligible and forceful conversation with students. In any institution the place of speech among required courses will depend upon the qualifications of the students, just as the ability of students in composing determines what courses they need.

The particular solutions to problems of setting requirements and scheduling courses are not the important issue. Many goals can be reached through traditional courses. Others, perhaps, can be achieved through special courses designed for future teachers. The range and the quality of undergraduate education do matter. The understandings and the competence imparted to undergraduate students are the issue. What have they learned in general education, in the study of literature, of language, of composition? Are their writing, their speaking, their oral reading of literature exemplary? And how often have they had the chance to see teaching of the highest order?

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PREVIEW

THE PH.D. IN ENGLISH: GENERAL SPECIFICATIONS

LITERARY STUDY IN THE GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PREPARATION OF THE COLLEGE
TEACHER

THE PREPARATION OF THE COLLEGE TEACHER IN
COMPOSITION

THE PH.D. PROGRAM FOR THE SCHOLAR-TEACHER
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CHAPTER 11

The Doctoral Program for the Teacher of College English

THE PRECEDING CHAPTER makes certain recommendations concerning the undergraduate study in English. The present chapter is devoted to the more professional aspects of the study of literature, language, and composition—a specialized program based upon the assumption that the candidate has had a truly liberal education during his undergraduate years. The chapter discusses the general requirements and program for the doctorate, six basic methodologies for advanced study in literature, minimum preparation in the English language, and special preparation in rhetoric and composition. The chapter treats future developments in programs for scholar-teachers and recommends ways in which the doctorate program may be so revised that candidates are better suited to the rigors and necessities of the profession as it now exists and will exist in the foreseeable future.

THE PH.D. IN ENGLISH

The Doctorate of Philosophy, as the highest degree awarded by an institution of higher learning, must itself be an institution of the highest *learning*. No other aim should obscure this absolutely fundamental one, that the holder of this degree be himself a learned man who has already contributed to learning and

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who intends to continue professionally what he has commenced as a student. As a learned man, the Ph.D. must have mastered those techniques and tools of research inherent in the prosecution of his trade.

It would be unrealistic to ask that specific preparation for the Ph.D. produce all the qualities its holder ought to possess. But adequate preparation should produce breadth of learning, imaginative sympathy, and verbal articulateness in every Doctor of Philosophy in English. Without them, learning and specialization become arid pedantry.

What should that preparation include in order to accomplish so much? In general, it should provide a broad and comprehensive knowledge of Western culture. More specifically, it ought to produce acquaintance with at least one other literature, not in translation, but in the original tongue; with one of the other arts, musical or visual; and with the major movements of intellectual history. As earlier recommendations in this volume indicated, no pre-Ph.D. training is complete that has not developed skill in the use of the language, written and oral. Exposition comes first, but some firsthand experience in writing poetry and fiction is professionally desirable. Felicity in public speaking and in the oral interpretation of literature is so indispensable to the transmission of literary knowledge that it should be given status in the preparation of the future Ph.D.

The holder of the Ph.D. in English must be a professional person with an aroused sense of social and educational responsibility, a potential future statesman in the educational world. Some time during his training he should have learned the history of American higher education and confronted the important pedagogical issues of his own time and of previous times. He should know something of the philosophy of education and should have become acquainted with the practical problems of elementary schools, high schools, and undergraduate colleges. During his graduate training, he should have firsthand experience in the college classroom. Not all these fields in pedagogy need to come from curricular training. A practicum can insure training in pedagogy and some knowledge of the history and problems of education. The Ph.D. in English need not be—in

fact, ought not be—primarily a specialist in the psychology of learning, but he must know where to find information on the general problems of learning.

The very last years of graduate study cannot provide the background required in the Ph.D. These years must necessarily be devoted to specialization and research. But the degree will truly be of highest learning only if the preparation at all academic levels is planned imaginatively to produce basic knowledge and skill and worthy attributes of mind. If English grammar and composition are better taught in the primary schools, the future Ph.D. should produce a better dissertation. If knowledge of foreign languages increases in the high schools and colleges, knowledge of a foreign literature will soon be axiomatic not only for the Ph.D. but for all educated people. A respectable B.A. should entail an adequate knowledge of history and one of the other arts. A proper English major and an intellectually respectable M.A. should insure knowledge of the entire field of English literature.

The climax will come in the specialization that earns the final accolade, achieved by men and women who have been richly endowed and humanely educated. This specialization is demonstrated by intimate knowledge of one of the recognized areas of English and by writing a book that contributes either new knowledge or a synthesis of old knowledge. A specialist in *language* must have a broad and deep acquaintance with English literature. A specialist in *literature* must have had advanced technical training in the history and the structure of the English language. Other important qualities—verbal skill, critical acumen, pedagogical ability—must necessarily be subordinated to this primary and differentiating distinction: learning in the English language and in the literature of English-speaking peoples.

LITERARY STUDY

Advanced preparation in literature for the prospective college teacher must give the student a reasonable command both of the significance and the methodologies of literary scholarship.

The approaches are many. Concentration on a single period or a single author must necessarily continue in some programs, but so must the careful study of literary history, of literary genres, and of formal criticism. At least six important emphases in advanced graduate study in English were identified in a report on "Doctoral Studies in English and Preparation for Teaching,"¹ prepared by a committee of the College English Association: (1) aesthetic-critical approach, (2) historical-biographical, (3) philosophical, (4) bibliographical, (5) pedagogical, and (6) creative.

These six approaches or emphases, together with advanced study in linguistics and in composition discussed in separate sections of this chapter, embrace methods with which all graduate students should be familiar. This discussion of the six approaches represents a reanalysis and restatement of the original CEA report written in the light of study and criticism of the document. Certainly each graduate student needs to learn something about each area of specialization, and some need to learn much. Of all the approaches, however, the aesthetic-critical may be the most crucial for those preparing to teach English in the colleges of today.

THE AESTHETIC-CRITICAL APPROACH TO LITERATURE

Aesthetic-critical is the term used in the original CEA report to describe an emphasis on the literary work as a work of art and craft, as an object for aesthetic contemplation as well as evaluation according to relevant critical standards. Criticism is the *culmination* of literary scholarship, but this does not mean that criticism is the sole activity of the scholar, nor should it displace all other aspects of the traditional program of graduate study. A reader cannot adequately understand, evaluate, or criticize a poem or a novel in a vacuum, without knowledge of literary history, of literary conventions, or of the shifts in the meanings

¹ Alvan Ryan, chairman, "Doctoral Studies in English and Preparation for Teaching," *The CEA Critic*, XX: 3 (March, 1958), 1, 7-11. The discussion in this section is based largely on recommendations in that report.

of words. Knowledge of social, political, artistic, philosophical, religious currents of thought in a given period, or of an author's life, or of his language or his own philosophical orientation, or of his revisions and emendations—all these should finally contribute to a fuller understanding of the nature of the work of art and of its quality. There is an enormous amount to be known about literary works, and it should be known as a *science*; that is, with precision and rigor of method, on the basis of facts gathered and correlated according to rules of evidence, and on inductive and deductive logic. But all of this science is *about* works of art, and as such it should be used to illuminate our understanding of a given poem, novel, play, or expository essay. The aesthetic-critical approach to literature is, finally, the means to that end.

Those who object to emphasizing this approach in programs for future college teachers sometimes suggest that such concentration minimizes sound scholarship, that the term "aesthetic" smacks of *fin-de-siècle* and of Anatole France's "adventure of the soul among masterpieces," and that stressing this approach may lead to mere impressionism in graduate study and to premature and inchoate expression of opinion on the part of graduate students. Abuses such as these are not to be defended, of course, but are less likely to occur in well-supervised graduate programs which recognize that, of all the approaches mentioned here, the aesthetic-critical must be based on genuine breadth of training. Thus, either in his undergraduate program or later, the graduate student will need to develop some familiarity with the fine arts and philosophy, some conversance with historical scholarship, and some awareness of the other approaches to literary works.

THE HISTORICAL-BIOGRAPHICAL APPROACH

Perhaps next in importance for future college teachers is a firm grasp of historical and biographical study of literature, as well as practice in this type of scholarship. The graduate student needs a wide and accurate knowledge of English and American literature; the historical aspect of literature, while less significant in the end than its artistic and philosophical aspects, is especially

important because of the lively interplay between historical and textual approaches in much modern criticism.

Naturally, the chief problem is that of definition. General cultural history (social, political, economic, philosophical) may have some *bearing* on literary history without being literary history in any strict sense. Every literary historian finds some practical solution to the problem of relevance, whereby he limits an exploration that could almost be endless. For example, in his *English Literature in the Earlier Seventeenth Century*,² Douglas Bush devotes one chapter each to "Jonson, Donne, and Their Successors" and to "Milton." These chapters clearly combine literary history with literary criticism and are evaluative and critical as well as historical. On the other hand, Professor Bush's chapters on "Political Thought" or "Science and Scientific Thought" are much more descriptive and historical. The treatment of Bacon in the latter chapter says almost nothing of Bacon as a stylist. From this single illustration it is clear that the "historical approach" is still one of the least precisely defined modes of literary study, despite its long tradition.

Another problem is the practical one. As historical knowledge of the various literary periods continues to accumulate, the doctoral candidate in English has to know more and more. Granted the importance of historical scholarship for understanding literary works in their cultural context, what are the bounds to its range? In attempting to acquire even part of this vast and varied historical scholarship, many Ph.D. candidates are forced to neglect other approaches to literature that would ultimately be more valuable to them as undergraduate teachers. Each institution should strive for a reasonable balance.

THE PHILOSOPHICAL APPROACH

Since literature is much closer than the other arts to philosophy, in a well-rounded program of literary studies some acquaintance with philosophy seems indispensable. Although a year course in Plato and Aristotle is a desirable preliminary to

² Douglas Bush, *English Literature in the Earlier Seventeenth Century, 1600-1660* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1945).

understanding ideas expressed in English and American literature, most institutions will not be able to require such preparation. Rather they will depend on one of the following to provide needed education in philosophy for their graduate students: a solid introductory course in philosophy planned especially for graduate students, a weekly series of round table discussions, or individually guided readings supervised by a member of the philosophy department. What graduate students in English must achieve is a familiarity with Western culture's continuing relationship between literature and philosophy, and what graduate programs should provide is the possibility for interested students to draw upon this relationship under scholarly guidance.

Occasionally individuals question the value of emphasizing the philosophical approach. Some believe that philosophy courses should form a part of the undergraduate, not the graduate program of the English major—though the undergraduate program is already crowded. The objection has been raised that graduate courses in philosophy are so rigorously departmentalized that the student cannot relate them to his graduate program in English. Nevertheless, a well-taught course in philosophy is ultimately of more value to a future scholar and teacher of English than one more period course in the chain conceived as filling in all the gaps from "Beowulf to the Present."

Therefore, unless one were to argue that, in Frost's words, the graduate program in English must be "thoroughly departmental" in order to be rigorously professional, some study of philosophy must inevitably be required. The chief necessity lies in making the connection between philosophy and literature. The admirable *Theory of Literature* by Wellek and Warren is illustrative.³ "Must not we rather conclude," say Wellek and Warren, "that 'philosophical truth' as such has no artistic value just as we argue that psychological or social truth has no artistic value as such?"⁴ Yet Wellek and Warren also believe that "the value for the exegesis of a poetic text of a knowledge of the history of philosophy and of general thought can scarcely be overrated."

³ René Wellek and Austin Warren, *Theory of Literature* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1956).

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 122.

Indeed the whole chapter entitled "Literature and Ideas," from which these quotations are taken, seems an admirable statement both of the importance of the philosophical approach and of the pitfalls to be avoided.

THE BIBLIOGRAPHICAL APPROACH

The term "bibliography" was taken to mean the general area of "preliminary operations in literary study": surveying the terrain in a given field of study and acquiring facility in using the tools of research. Often the bibliographical approach dominates an introductory course. No one will deny that tomorrow's scholars need the tools; many believe, however, that such work needs little emphasis beyond the first year when students are often required to complete a course with such a self-explanatory title as "Bibliography and Introduction to Research" or "Aims and Methods."

Presumably few scholars would object theoretically to courses introducing students to bibliographical study, textual criticisms, and allied pursuits. As Wellek and Warren have said, "These studies need to be criticized adversely only when they usurp the place of other studies and become a specialty mercilessly imposed on every student of literature." Can a single three-credit course introduce the student to the various research problems one meets in the whole extent of English literature, or can such an introduction be achieved better by insisting that each graduate course provide the requisite orientation in the particular bibliographical problems arising in its area of literary study? Since bibliographical and textual studies must be a part of the education of all graduate students in English, the issue is simply the practical one of whether a separate course with various exercises or library assignments (which may strike the student as being artificial and mechanical) is better than leavening the entire program with this study. The converse problem is obvious: that the individual graduate professor may slight his responsibility for teaching these "preliminary operations"; and without the special course, the student will remain ignorant of the first, though ultimately less important, steps in his professional training.

PEDAGOGICAL APPROACH

In any doctoral program the training of the scholar and the training of the teacher should not be divorced. Probably pedagogy need not receive direct emphasis in any course, save in seminars, conferences, and meetings which are concerned with the teaching of undergraduate courses, internships, practice teaching, and with the visits by senior professors to classes taught by graduate students. Such problems are discussed later in this chapter.

One of the major reasons for emphasizing the aesthetic-critical approach in doctoral programs is that this emphasis is especially appropriate for a young scholar-teacher whose early teaching will almost inevitably be on the undergraduate level, especially in the freshman and sophomore courses, where he must help young people analyze selected literary documents. Thus, the graduate student's education in aesthetic-critical methods should introduce him to methods which he can use in his teaching. Similarly, his introduction to other approaches should provide him with needed knowledge and methods. Scholarship and research are not to be divorced from teaching, nor is teaching technique to be made a substitute for scholarship and research. Scholarship is necessary and so is the technique of communicating the results of that scholarship to undergraduate students.

THE CREATIVE APPROACH

Because the central aim of doctoral studies in English is a wide and accurate knowledge of English and American language and literature, nothing can replace the reading and study of the literary works themselves. Thus the creative approach, emphasizing the writing of original poems, stories, and plays, seems not sufficiently important to supplant other emphases in an overall graduate program. However, imaginative writing can sharpen the prospective college teacher's alertness to technical problems and can lead him to greater awareness of what is involved in genuine imaginative achievement. Surely it has its place during the undergraduate years, and, in some exceptional cases, a novel

or volume of poetry may be substituted for a scholarly dissertation. Especially those institutions with appropriate faculties may wish to provide a special emphasis on imaginative writing in programs leading to such degrees as the master of fine arts. For these reasons, then, institutions may well wish to give creation or imagination status equivalent with research theses and critical theses, if they can do so without substituting programs on short story writing or writers' workshops for traditional scholarly study. Emphasis on the creative approach during the doctoral program would mean that students should follow the usual scholarly program for the Ph.D., substituting only a piece of imaginative writing for the dissertation during the final stages of doctoral training.

The approaches suggested here require more broadly conceived and flexible programs for the Ph.D. than are presently offered in many institutions. As the CEA committee recommended, every Ph.D. candidate requires some training in each of the approaches (except, obviously the creative, since not every doctoral candidate is an imaginative writer), but the degree of concentration should be determined with respect to the individual student and his program. The critical approach, concerned as it is with the interpretation of literature, should be primary, and it appears that in many ways such an emphasis on interpretation is predominating in most American universities.

Both a greater breadth in training and a more imaginative view of concentration seem necessary. Instead of concentrating only on a single author or period, students should be encouraged to concentrate on some of the central problems or issues of literary study, many of which are interdisciplinary. Hence, all the approaches—including the philosophical, which in essence is an interdepartmental or interdisciplinary approach—should be taught and studied. This is one way to develop Ph.D.'s who are not—as it has been aptly put—simply covered with carrel dust.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE PREPARATION

If the content preparation of the English teacher in the secondary schools must include minimum concern with the struc-

ture and the historical background of the language, then the preparation of the college and university teacher of English should provide deeper and more extended training.

If knowledge of language is relevant to teaching composition and literature in high school, it is no less relevant to teaching composition and literature in the junior college or first two years of the university, where the M.A. holder is likely to be teaching.

The growing acceptance of language study in the freshman course has intensified the need for a study of linguistics on the part of the instructor. The handful of composition and communication courses that during the 1950's used the English language as content is rapidly multiplying as suitable textbooks and "source" books become available. Obviously the instructor in such a course, despite whatever *ad hoc* preparation he may from day to day engage in, does justice to neither his students nor the content of his course if he lacks the requisite linguistic information and insights.

Actually, scholars during the past thirty or forty years have outlined the need to include adequate linguistic content in the entire doctoral program. Two presidential addresses before conventions of the Modern Language Association stressed it: those by the late George Oliver Curme in 1931⁵ and by the late Eduard Prokosch in 1937.⁶ Further attention to the need appeared in 1945 in the precise and vigorous report of the MLA Commission on Trends in Education.⁷ In 1956 an MLA con-

⁵ George O. Curme, "Are Our Teachers of English Adequately Prepared for Their Work?" *PMLA*, 46 (Suppl., 1932), 1415-1426.

⁶ Eduard Prokosch, "Reason Within the Castle," *PMLA*, 52 (Suppl., 1938), 1320-1327. This major address is too meaty to be abstracted. Its flavor can be inferred from Prokosch's forthright statement: "Let us not mince words: . . . the teaching of the structure of our language is in the great majority of even our best universities badly neglected, or almost entirely disregarded. . . . Rome was not built in a day. Sufficient linguistic training cannot be offered, much less enforced, immediately. Through decades of neglect of linguistics, through pampering of the less intelligent and less willing of our students, we have, for the time being, forfeited the opportunity of developing a sufficient supply of instructors in linguistics. It will take years to overcome this deficiency. To do it at all it will be necessary to encourage some of our ablest students to devote themselves to linguistics rather than literature."

⁷ Thomas Clark Pollock, W. C. De Vane, and Robert E. Spiller, *The English Language in American Education* (New York: MLA, 1945).

ference on language stipulated that a full-year course should be required of all teacher candidates who "will deal with the English language or language arts at any and all levels of instruction"; and in the following year, the CEA Report on "Doctoral Studies in English and Preparation for Teaching" insisted upon the need for two full-year sequences in the English language for any student who begins his language study in the graduate school.

As early as 1923 the National Council of Teachers of English turned public attention to the need for better English language preparation when it published an article by the late James F. Royster attacking the language training then given to the graduate student.⁸ The NCTE report of 1928 also urged improved language training,⁹ and in 1929 Kemp Malone in the *English Journal* (College Edition) more specifically indicated the value of both historical and descriptive linguistic content.¹⁰ Since then the NCTE, through its journals and through addresses at conventions, has repeatedly supported adequate language content in the preparation of the candidate for the English doctorate.

The traditional objective of language study is that of ability to read the literature of earlier periods, of Old and Middle English. A related but more recently enunciated objective is that of enhancing the ability to understand—and to teach the understanding of—language as the basis of rhetoric, poetics, and semantics, and hence to deepen the appreciation of literature. A third such objective is that of controlling—and teaching the control of—appropriate forms of the spoken and written varieties of the standard dialect.

Looming over all these in the thinking of an ever growing number of critics of the preparation of college teachers is the simple objective of language knowledge as an end in itself. Just

⁸ James F. Royster, "Preparation of the English Composition Teacher," *English Journal*, XII (June, 1923), 397-404.

⁹ NCTE Committee on English Language Courses in Colleges and Universities, "Training in English Language for English Teachers," *English Journal* (College Edition), XVII (December, 1928), 825-835.

¹⁰ Kemp Malone, "English Linguistics and the Ph.D.," *English Journal* (College Edition), XVIII (April, 1929), 312-320.

as a liberally educated person is expected to have had some introduction to historical method through the study of history, to scientific method through some work in science, to literary criticism through the study of literature, so he is equally responsible for, in the words of the CEA report, "enough knowledge of the philosophical, psychological, and anthropological approaches to language to realize the extent to which man's cultural patterns and mental processes depend on the medium of language."¹¹ Language is man's distinguishing characteristic, goes the argument; surely an educated man may be presumed to have an objective knowledge of his own language and of language in general. How much more reasonable, then, is this presumption for the person attaining the degree of doctor of philosophy in English!

But the emphasis, say the linguists, should be placed less upon information about language than upon fundamental insights, basic concepts, to which specific language data may be assigned and with which they may be correlated. Understanding of many of these concepts should emerge from completion of courses recommended as part of the undergraduate major, as well as through special graduate study. Among these basic concepts are these:

1. English, as a language, is a system of human behavior patterns, appearing in a complex set of structures in which English speakers place the combinations of voluntarily produced vocal sounds that have symbolic meaning.
2. With reference not to social or literary value but solely to its immediacy to the structure, to the system, speech may be regarded as the primary manifestation of language and writing as a secondary manifestation.
3. English, as a language, tends toward regularity and symmetry in its structure. (These trends appear both in analytic grammar and in productive or transformation grammar.)
4. Language is constantly changing; it varies in time and place. It also varies with context, i.e., according to social level, educational

¹¹ Committee on Language, "Linguistic Studies in the Doctoral Program in English," *The CEA Critic*, XX: 3 (March, 1958), 12.

level, degrees of informality, emotional tone, and whether spoken or written.

5. Usage is the correlation between variety in linguistic form and features of the nonlinguistic environment; the study of usage is the study of that correlation.
6. Good usage correlates with such variables as a high degree of literacy, a considerable amount of formal education, a fairly high social position in the community, and occupational activity on at least the level of the semiprofessional worker.
7. Meaning itself is multivalued. Linguistic meaning is conveyed by language forms that serve primarily to signal linguistic relationships. Lexical meaning is that extralinguistic relationship within the environment which is brought into focus by the specific occurrence of a linguistic form.

Basic language concepts may be acquired, of course, in more than one way. Independent reading may provide them just as it may provide knowledge of literature. But for the average graduate student who is not assiduous in independent reading, the university should make them available through course work.

The following list of content areas is less a list of courses than it is of subject fields which may be circumscribed by course limits. Specific courses in a particular graduate school should include such content areas to complement a student's undergraduate preparation.

MINIMAL ENGLISH LANGUAGE CONTENT IN THE PH.D. PROGRAM

THE STRUCTURE OF MODERN ENGLISH

Although at present probably most desirably devoted chiefly to that description of English sounds and grammar (phonemics, morphemics, and syntax) offered by the contemporary structural linguist, this description of the language should be presented with some comparison with the prescriptive description of the 18th century Latinate grammar and also with the highly detailed and thoroughly developed analysis of the 19th and early 20th

century grammarians such as those provided by Sweet, Curme, Jespersen, Kruisinga, and Poutsma. In addition to these analytic grammars, graduate students should also become familiar with the transformation grammar of Noam Chomsky, R. B. Lees, and others.

THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

On the graduate level attention to the historical development of the language may exist in two distinct courses. In that case, one course will concentrate upon the historical development of English structure—the changes in phonemic patterning from Old English through Middle English into Modern English, and the interlinked changes in the morphemic and syntactic patterns over the same thousand-year period. The second course, then, will concern lexical growth and development, with inclusion of historical semantics and the history of English lexicography.

OLD ENGLISH

Just as Modern English is studied in depth so should one of the earlier periods of the language be studied in depth. Middle English could be used for this purpose, but it seems strategically wiser to take the earliest period of the language so as to provide a comprehensive basis for the presentation of the historical development. Old English structure then should be presented in relation to subsequent changes as well as to the customary Germanic and prehistoric Old English changes, even though the course also serves the purpose of preparation for the reading of Old English literary remnants.

AMERICAN ENGLISH

The content of a course in American English should be both diachronic and synchronic. In the former part would be the development of those lexical and other features which have come to distinguish American English from British English. In the latter part would be treated the features which distinguish the

regional varieties of American English, with attention to the evidence accruing from the materials collected for the several regional projects comprising the Linguistic Atlas of the United States.

LINGUISTIC APPLICATIONS TO THE STUDY OF LITERATURE AND COMPOSITION

This study would include consideration of the relationship between linguistics and rhetoric, the implications of phonemic and structural analysis for English prosody and the study of poetry, the use of psycholinguistic data in literary criticism, the utilization of structural information in the improvement of prose style, and the theory of usage. In essence, the content would attempt to produce a synthesis of material drawn from a data-based analytic discipline, linguistics, and material drawn from a value-based discipline, the study of literature.

PREPARATION IN COMPOSITION

The aims of preparation in composition for the future college teacher ought to be three: to make the candidate a good writer himself, to make him a good critic of writing, and to acquaint him with some practical problems that will confront him in the composition classroom and to suggest ways of dealing with them.

To insure that the prospective teacher is able to write good prose, he should be required as an undergraduate to take a solid course in advanced composition (expository and argumentative) in either the junior or senior year. More writing required of undergraduates and more careful attention paid to that writing will develop facility and expression that carry over into the prospective teacher's entire career. The earlier prose is taught and demanded, the better the results.

During his graduate years, as well as his undergraduate, all the prospective teacher's papers and examinations for English courses should be read carefully with an eye to the quality of the prose as well as the accuracy and cogency of the statements; the grade should reflect that scrutiny. The student's master's thesis and

doctoral dissertation should be examined during preparation for correct, lucid, and vigorous English.

Courses already in the master's or doctoral program should, if properly oriented, go far toward helping the candidate become a sound critic of writing. His literature courses should offer him practice in analysis and evaluation, should lead him to deduce important rhetorical principles from the literature, and should help him to develop a sense of quality. His work in linguistics should provide him with a rational point of view toward modern English in the light of its historical development, should give him a detailed knowledge of the structure of English sentences, and should encourage him to develop a reasoned attitude toward matters of usage.

The addition of one course not likely to be found in most doctoral programs—a course in English prose style so organized as to include both a historical survey and intensive practice in analysis—could be important for the teacher of composition.

In introducing the doctoral candidate to the practical problems of composition teaching, English departments should take full advantage of the fact that most of their doctoral candidates are or could be engaged in part-time teaching of freshman composition. A carefully planned program of inservice training will give the candidate actual classroom experience, help him to correct some mistakes and avoid others, and instill in him a sense of responsibility toward his profession.

Most universities supervise somewhat the work of the assistants who teach the freshman composition courses. Two forms of supervision seem to be the most practical. The University of Illinois, for example, in addition to the usual administrative supervision, has developed a program of counselling on the part of senior professors of literature, who are given released teaching time for the purpose. Lehigh University has recently established graduate training internships which involve a correlated program of teaching and study as well as a closer association with senior professors.

In short, the graduate program of the student of English should include some direct and recognized preparation for what will inevitably be his major concern at least in the earlier years

of his career: the teaching of freshman composition. This preparation is an integral part of the preparation of the scholar-teacher, which is discussed in the following summarizing and concluding section of this chapter.

THE PH.D. FOR THE SCHOLAR-TEACHER

The traditional curriculum leading to the doctorate in English embraces that part of graduate study beyond the M.A.: it presupposes four years of undergraduate study of literature and language as well as a year or more of advanced study leading to the master's degree. The Ph.D. program proper consists of two years of study, which is an entirely arbitrary conception since none but the most exceptionally well-prepared student has been able to complete the program in two chronological years. The first year of the representative program commonly involves examinations demonstrating a reading knowledge of two foreign languages, the acquisition of a modest degree of philological learning, training in specialized critical and scholarly methods through seminars, and at the end a general examination, the celebrated oral and written examinations designed to test the candidate's knowledge of English and American literature. The second year of the program is commonly given over to the preparation of the doctoral dissertation, which is aimed at furnishing evidence of the scholarly abilities of the person who writes it.

In original conception the program was a rigorous one, narrowly focused on historical literary scholarship; its purpose was to produce scholars, learned yet capable of independent thought and ready to advance the boundaries of literary understanding for both students and scholars. Current programs are generally more widely conceived. Emphasis upon philological learning has given way to emphasis on the arts of criticism and interpretation. Dissertations that were once confined to authors and writings of past centuries may now concern modern authors and writings, living as well as dead, and they need no longer be limited to exercises of the historical imagination. Nevertheless, even with such changes, not all are convinced that the program is preparing students for the needs and realities of academic life today.

The contempt with which the pedagogical functions of the profession are held by those teaching in college classrooms and the naiveté of the young Ph.D. with respect to professional abilities and obligations are equally disturbing.

Those eager to find weaknesses in the doctoral program can readily find them. Students have been admitted to the program with but slender qualifications and preparation. Students are permitted to consume unnecessary years in concentrating on courses preparing for the general examination and at the expense of preparing for the work they are destined to do in college classrooms or as scholars. General examinations have been allowed to become rituals endured by both candidates and examiners, serene in the certainty that the student will pass. The examinations too rarely are concerned with such matters as breadth of learning, imaginative sympathy, or conceptual understanding; and enthusiasm for literature is often mistaken for intelligence. Dissertations on subjects of no possible relevance or interest to anyone are admitted; and students may consume precious years compiling data on trivia, while the exercise of economy, selection, and organization that constitutes a principal value of the dissertation experience is ignored.

That one can find and even multiply deficiencies of this kind does not mean that they are indigenous to the program itself. At most they are deficiencies in administration. The fact is that the Ph.D. has satisfied the needs of higher education in America with remarkable effectiveness and that it has resulted in most of the important contributions to humane knowledge and learning over the past fifty years. Nevertheless, the time has come for scrutiny and self-criticism.

Most of the suggestions for improving the present program seem now to be dictated by the desire to secure more and better schoolmasters for the profession—needed for the higher enrollments predicted for the future. If enrollments are to double in the next ten or fifteen years, will sufficient manpower be available to provide the instruction? Can resources of training and talent be utilized more effectively? Other questions follow. Does the bulk of the instruction given to freshmen and sophomores, much of it lamentably on the level of the secondary school, re-

quire from the teacher either the time or depth represented by the Ph.D.? Do junior colleges really need to be staffed with those holding the doctorate?

The obvious answers to these rhetorical questions have led to three main proposals which relate to the Ph.D. First, it is proposed that the master's degree once again, as it was in the past, be considered the terminal degree for teaching in many colleges and junior colleges; second, it is proposed that a degree intermediate between the M.A. and the Ph.D. be instituted; third, it is proposed that more attention to pedagogy be given in the Ph.D. program.

The first proposal implies strengthening the present master's degree; and one plan, now being undertaken with foundation support, includes preparation on an intensive scale which will begin in the student's junior year and will continue through one year of graduate study.

However, it is nearly impossible to generalize about a degree that has been terminal for many high school and junior college teachers; transitional for assistants and instructors who plan careers in four-year institutions; vestigial for many continuing graduate students, who may at times completely bypass the formal requirements for this degree.

Regardless of how graduate school faculties regard the M.A., the fact remains that an increasing number of lower division English courses are taught by holders of this degree. In all likelihood, this trend will continue. The need for an M.A. program that is not merely a way-station to the Ph.D., but an entity with a defensible rationale, is obvious. If improvements in the preparation of secondary school teachers and in the high school English curriculum continue, how many freshmen will find instruction in college poor by comparison? How much would instruction improve if the design of the master's program reflected the fact that this degree is the level of academic preparation reached by most beginning college teachers?

Institutions organizing master's programs for the first time and those revising existing programs must keep in mind the range of competencies necessary for college teaching. Students

enrolling in such programs with a view toward teaching should take work in language and composition, as well as in literature. They should, in addition, through special seminars and directed teaching experience, develop an understanding of the special responsibilities of the teachers. Although this chapter and the next are concerned primarily with the Ph.D. candidate, the general principles regarding scope of academic preparation, supervision of instruction, and programs to improve teaching may well serve as guidelines for improving curricula for the master's degree.

The second proposal, much discussed, usually involves all the work presently in the doctoral curriculum except the dissertation. In terms of practical need, such proposals are interesting and are worth attempting. Even if the intermediate degree has not at this time achieved the kind of acceptance and recognition it must have if students can fairly be encouraged to take it, the degree may in the future be accepted without reservation. Indeed, the profession may be forced to accept this degree, in view of the expected rise of enrollments during the next few years. Already, large numbers of junior colleges and liberal arts colleges must perforce be content with something short of the doctorate. While all hold that for advanced teaching the doctorate is a necessity, those who scrutinize the profession carefully probably agree that for many introductory courses in literature and composition a good master's degree or the intermediate degree is sufficient preparation.

Nevertheless these proposals have not proceeded very far; for the conviction that the Ph.D. is an indispensable license for one who would enter college or university classrooms as a teacher dies hard—though one sometimes feels that the conviction is misplaced and is aimed at increasing the "prestige" of the faculty rather than increasing the quality of teaching. Efforts to remedy the pedagogical ills of college teaching have therefore focused on a doctoral program itself, since most colleges hope to hire Ph.D.'s who are good teachers. These efforts are based on the charge that the orientation of the advanced degree to the disciplines of historical scholarship and to the higher criticism has

failed to make those who have earned the degree fit for, or even satisfied with, teaching. If that is true, the real solution lies in increasing the pedagogical aspect of the Ph.D. program.

To strengthen pedagogical training, the Ph.D. program, in addition to its present functions, should make formal provision for seminars and teaching methods and supervised practice teaching, for courses in the history of higher education and the psychology of learning.

An excellent summary of twenty-seven college and university programs for preparation for college teaching appears in the report of the Southern Regional Education Board, describing a conference held at the University of Kentucky in 1959.¹² Among those which involve cooperation of graduate schools, academic departments, and departments of education are those at the University of Michigan, the University of Minnesota, Vanderbilt University, and the two at Florida State University and the University of Florida.

But do these prescriptions really attack one crucial difficulty? Will any amount of pedagogical learning added to the doctoral program significantly motivate young Ph.D.'s to teaching?

Until American higher education provides effective incentives for teaching, proposals to alter the degree program so as to produce better schoolmasters are at best premature, if not quite irrelevant. Teaching in the classrooms of universities and colleges can improve overnight if college administrations, professional societies, and senior faculty members will do more than reiterate pious statements about the importance of teaching and will reward such teaching with promotions and salary increases. Young Ph.D.'s entering the profession are quite capable of giving what is expected of them; and until competence in teaching is asked for and rewarded, there will be little improvement in that area, no matter how much pedagogical training is forced into a Ph.D. program. Though all administrators recognize the importance of good teaching, the fact cannot be blinked

¹² A. D. Albright and John E. Barrows, *Preparing College Teachers* (Lexington: University of Kentucky and Southern Regional Education Board, 1959).

that the rewards of an academic career come faster to the man more exclusively devoted to research and publication.

Then universities may ask of their doctoral candidates in English evidence of continuing professional preparation during undergraduate study and study for the master's degree. Such extensive training is no more than is asked of the lawyer or the doctor or the chemist. Should one who takes upon himself the obligation of training men's minds, tastes, and imaginations have less practical preparation for his work? To view the preparation for teaching as a long apprenticeship would reserve the Ph.D. for intensive and rigorous intellectual experience.

Then universities may insist of those who wish to be admitted as candidates for the doctorate evidence of real intelligence and imaginative sympathy; acquaintance with at least one foreign language, as well as the literature of that language; and knowledge of the English language and its manipulations. General examinations may be made more rewarding experiences by insisting that a candidate show not merely a ready grasp of the main facts of literary history but an ability to articulate complex and sophisticated aesthetic concepts—and an ability to interpret a literary masterpiece with perception and discrimination. Dissertations may then be demanded to provide evidence of the more advanced modes of scholarly and critical training.

The forces arrayed against improvement of the Ph.D. program are formidable. A degree program, the aspects of which have become stereotyped and fossilized, has seldom been revised; in addition, it must contend with the corrosive effects of ever increasing numbers of students and the practical needs of the profession for more teachers. Nevertheless, the forces which threaten the degree must be resisted. An important aim of the advanced degree is to insure that the scholar-teacher be equipped to advance learning. The teacher who carries with him into the classroom the interests and disciplines that a good Ph.D. program has fostered in him furnishes stimulating and effective instruction. If teaching is a profession with comprehensive, rather than limited, responsibilities, the doctoral program which itself serves the ends of scholarship will serve the legitimate ends of college instruction.

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PREVIEW

PLANNING A CAREER

IMPORTANCE OF LEARNING TO TEACH

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CHAPTER 12

How the Candidate Learns to Teach College English

PLANNING A CAREER

EARLIER CHAPTERS have described how young men and women who wish to become teachers of college English choose their careers and are recruited for them. Their motives are more diverse than those of teachers in other fields. A few intend to become poets or novelists and believe that teaching will give them the necessary security. Some expect to distinguish themselves as literary critics. A good many have no distinct plan for a career but believe that they would enjoy teaching English because they like to read, have made good marks in literature courses, and find the atmosphere of a college town congenial. Some, of course, are genuinely interested in scholarship. And others have a "calling" to teach. But whatever their desires, they all know that a higher degree is a requisite, and they enroll, accordingly, in the graduate schools of our universities.

The atmosphere which they find there is intellectually stimulating, and the instruction which they receive is often excellent. Unfortunately, the aims of most graduate schools and the environment which they provide are not particularly conducive to the development of teaching skills. This observation has been made frequently enough; but perhaps it should be stressed at this point.

Graduate schools, to a greater degree than ever before, are

Written by Warner G. Rice, University of Michigan.

competing for status. Self-study, with a view to improvement, is today a common (and well-financed) activity in institutions of higher learning. During such a study, the usual method of determining the strength of a department is to invite estimates of its relative standing in comparison with departments of strong universities. Though the individual ratings of many scholars may be ill-informed and highly impressionistic, they give, in the aggregate, rankings which have considerable weight with administrators—and prospective graduate students. Since appraisals of this kind rarely take into account the quality of undergraduate teaching (about which, indeed, little is ordinarily known), a department's place in the scale will usually be fixed by the "national visibility" of its members—i.e., their prominence in professional organizations, on boards and commissions, as directors of projects, and as publishing scholars. Every university wishes to have on its roster persons who have thus gained eminence. If it has a relatively new and struggling graduate school, it will try to attract such persons and develop them; if it is well established and famous, it will endeavor to retain its men and women of high reputation. Very often one of the incentives used to attract and retain a scholar is the promise that he will have relatively little teaching of any kind to do and that little or none of this teaching will be in undergraduate classes. In nearly every case, not classroom, but more public, performance is valued—because of the advantage such performance gives in recruiting, in getting support for expensive graduate programs, in soliciting grants from foundations, and in getting funds for expansion from public and private sources.

The graduate student, who has a quick eye for the realities of academic life, early becomes aware of the importance of publicizing his own talents by research scholarship, by writing critical essays, and by developing whatever gifts he has for attracting notice in learned societies. He has before him not only the example of the senior professor from whom he is receiving instruction; he has also the example of beginning instructors, who are constantly admonished to publish and who receive their first recognition and promotion chiefly through their success in

breaking into print.¹ Moreover he is preoccupied with the necessary business of learning what scholarship is and with the awful necessity of writing a dissertation. If he is a teaching assistant, he discovers that self-preservation will not permit him to give a major part of his strength to work in the classroom and that the persons with whom he associates are primarily interested not in underclassmen but in achieving the status which comes with "a course of one's own."

Unless he has an unusually strong sense of dedication, therefore, the candidate for the Ph.D. in English will not give much thought to the act of teaching. The chances are good, moreover, that his sense of dedication will not be strong. The chances are even better that, burdened and engaged as he is with his private concerns, he will give little thought to the profession which he is about to enter.

Unless he does so, however, he is likely to be severely handicapped in shaping his career. In a complex society which demands more and more specialization, not only of knowledge but also of function, the prospective teacher should carefully examine, long before he attains the higher degree which will assure his academic respectability, both his own capacities and the variety of opportunities which are open to him.

For in our times the teacher of English may select any one of a number of avenues leading to a satisfying career. He will early become aware that he must select a "field" for intensive study—e.g., the history of the English language, medieval literature, or the novel. Since prudence should be one of the factors which controls his choice of a specialty, he will note that some areas—

¹ There is no need to review here the endless, and often empty, controversy over the relation of research to teaching. The conclusion usually reached, that the curiosity and intellectual energy that make for success in scholarship usually strengthen and vitalize teaching, is indisputable. The point to be emphasized is that while much attention is given to making the graduate student a competent scholar, much less is done to make him a competent teacher. This lack has been of concern to the foundations; see "The Education of College Teachers," in the *Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching*, 1957-58; Earl J. McGrath, *The Graduate School and the Decline of Liberal Education* (New York: Publications Bureau, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959).

e.g., modern fiction—are crowded with scholars and overstaffed with teachers, while others—e.g., training candidates for secondary school positions in English or for teaching English as a second language, the humanities, world literature—are not now properly served. Having taken account both of his own preferences and the market, and in the knowledge that the specialty which he offers may determine the nature of his first full-time appointment, he makes his decision. Often he supposes that this is the only decision he needs to make; but certainly other matters merit his early and careful consideration.

It has been the custom to assume that the holder of a doctor's degree, with a satisfactory record in graduate school and a respectable thesis to his credit, will, as a matter of course, seek (and get) an appointment in a university where he can have the chance to work his way up to graduate teaching and distinguish himself as a scholar. In anticipation, the average doctoral candidate patterns his notion of a successful academic career after that of an admired professor who has encouraged him in a seminar. Consequently, the meetings of the Modern Language Association swarm with applicants for posts in thirty or forty preferred institutions, institutions preferred because they appear to offer the kind of professional activity which the graduate student has lately observed at close range. Because these universities obviously cannot employ annually more than a third of the persons granted the Ph.D., many applicants are disappointed. From such an initial disappointment some never recover. Their discomfiture might be less if they had thought in time about the variety of positions lying open to them.

There are approximately thirteen hundred institutions of collegiate and university rank in the United States; the count may be increased by 50 per cent if junior and community colleges are included.² The great majority of these are eager to employ Ph.D.'s and, in many instances, will pay premiums to attract them. Half the full-time and nearly half the part-time students in the country attend its three hundred universities—

² These estimates are based on NEA, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959-60 and 1960-61*. Higher Education Series, Research Report 1961-R 12 (Washington: NEA, 1961).

a majority of them of fairly recent creation. Many of these newer institutions have a remarkably high potential for acquiring reputation and influence. They are generously supported, are directed by able and ambitious administrators, and can offer more rapid advancement and more opportunities to shape educational policy than most of the long-established universities. To energetic young men and women they offer the excitement of growth and experiment. If the needs which they serve and some of the objectives which they have set differ from those of the Ivy League, they are none the worse for that. They offer possibilities for effective and rewarding educational leadership. Teachers colleges, municipal colleges, liberal arts colleges, community colleges, and junior colleges widen the range. The academic community in the United States offers many mansions worthy of the candidate's consideration. If he is to find the place where he is likely to feel most at home, where his talents can be most satisfyingly exploited, he must enlarge the narrow views now generally held about the profession and recognize that many institutions not on the preferred list hold out attractive promises for him. In planning his career he should, therefore, study many catalogs and announcements and be acquainted with such standard reference books as *American Universities and Colleges*.

The prospective teacher should recognize, too, that much valuable teaching is to be done outside campus classrooms. As automation and other forces shorten the employable period of the average citizen, adult and continuing education—extension courses, correspondence courses, television and radio courses—will be in increasing demand.³ The fact that more planning and development need to be done in these areas may suggest career opportunities to those who have a taste for administration. Managerial activity is of growing importance in academic life. As a matter of fact, teachers of English often find it congenial. Certainly their skills are often needed in the organization and direction of large courses. Many are attracted to counseling,

³ Malcolm S. Knowles, ed., *Handbook of Adult Education in the United States* (Chicago: Adult Education Association of the United States, 1960). See the series of *Notes and Essays on Education for Adults* published by the Association; also Renee Petersen and William Petersen, *University Adult Education* (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1960).

greater and lesser deanships, and even college presidencies. In the educational world of the midtwentieth century, one of the surest guarantees of prestige and security lies in an administrative appointment.

Indeed, as institutions of learning grow and as the problem of supporting them becomes more formidable, they show a strong tendency to adopt practices used in business and industry.⁴ The techniques of personnel management, for instance, are being introduced, and teachers of the coming generation must reckon with them. Tests and measurements are the order of the day, as boys and girls seeking admission to college know. Inevitably, colleges will attempt not only to identify the qualities of a good teacher (so that the probable success of an individual can be predicted) but also to discover what characteristics make a good lecturer, a good leader of group discussions, a good tutor. They will want to investigate the initial fitness of the teacher to teach. Already they are vigorously discussing the need for licensing or certification. It was, for example, a major item on the agenda of the TEPS Conference held in June, 1961, at The Pennsylvania State University and was extensively treated in the working papers prepared for that occasion.⁵

The prospective teacher should also be acquainted with the experiments, not unrelated to these inquiries into teaching

⁴ Schools of Education offer courses in college administration, as well as in public school administration, and at the University of Michigan a special department has been organized to deal with the administrative problems of higher education. Administrative techniques have a prominent place on the agenda of educational conferences. See, for instance, H. J. Henneman, "Goals and Techniques of Business, Industry, and Government That May Be Applicable to the Administration of Higher Education," *Proceedings of the Sixteenth Annual National Conference on Higher Education*, edited by G. Kerry Smith (Washington: AHE, 1961), pp. 181-184. In addition to the strictly professional literature, books like *Memo to a College Trustee*, by Beardsley Ruml and Donald Morrison (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959) attract many readers.

⁵ See Chapter 6, "A License to Teach," *New Horizons for the Teaching Profession*, edited by Margaret Lindsay (Washington: NEA, 1961). The proposal that the licensing of teachers be done by their own professional associations has been debated at NCTE meetings. See Arthur L. Benson and Fred Godshalk, "Bar Examinations for NCTE Membership," and Eugene E. Slaughter, "A Modified Proposal for 'Bar Exams,'" *College English*, 22 (November, 1960), 133-138.

effectiveness, that are being tried in an effort to lower the unit costs of instruction. These experiments will multiply as the pressure for admission to college rises and as the cost of higher education puts an increasing strain on parents and the taxpaying public generally. Colleges are considering plans for reorganizing instruction and studies through team teaching, the substitution of supervised programs of reading for the conventional classes, the introduction of reading periods, greater reliance on comprehensive examinations, and the use of teaching machines or such media as television, kinescopes, tape. If these innovations prove successful in conserving the teacher's time, they will certainly be widely adopted, with a consequent revision of many traditional practices.⁶

LEARNING TO TEACH

The observations presented in the foregoing paragraphs may seem to the candidate now preparing for his first full-time appointment to have little relevance as far as his own career is concerned. At present, it is true, the market is a seller's market, so that anyone with a reasonably good intelligence, a liking for books, and an advanced degree can be sure of a place in an English department. But times are changing more rapidly than many persons now in academic life suppose. In the future, much more may be expected in the way of professional preparation for the classroom than has been demanded in the past.

Tradition has generally accepted the principle that the teacher, like the poet, is born, not made; that if he is a scholar with a

⁶ Many of the experiments referred to have been sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Descriptions and observations concerning them have been published by the Fund in *The Utilization of College Teaching Resources*, 1956, and *Better Utilization . . .*, 1957. See also Elizabeth Paschal, "What New Developments and Techniques, Other Than TV, Indicate That the Quality of Instruction Need Not Be Sacrificed, nor the Teaching Load Increased, While Increasing the Number of Students Taught," *Current Issues in Higher Education*, edited by G. Kerry Smith (Washington: AHE, 1958). The text and the bibliography in Wilbert J. McKeachie, *Research in College Teaching Methods* (Ann Arbor: published in mimeographed form, 1960) and *The Appraisal of Teaching in Large Universities* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1959) are of interest in this connection.

good command of his subject, the rest can be left to his own initiative and experience. Also, the young teacher, more so than a person in any other profession, has had the opportunity to learn successful classroom skills by a long course of observation and indoctrination before he begins to practice. That is, every teacher has himself been taught, and taught by at least a few highly successful experts. If he has been at all alert, he should certainly have analyzed and evaluated the methods of those from whom he has learned. Apparently, however, the process of instruction, as it now operates, does not sufficiently develop this critical awareness, nor do the students' preceptors provide all the benefits possible. Considerable gains could surely be made if college and university teachers of English made more explicit and direct use of the opportunities daily offered them to explain and illustrate, as a part of their regular practice, the pedagogical methods which they themselves employ. In all English classes above the elementary level a sizable number of students have likely chosen, or will choose, the teaching of English as their life work. The teachers of these classes should give reasonable time to state their purposes and to define and expound the methods by which they reach their goals.

But that this procedure is not very common is demonstrated not only by the relatively large incidence of misunderstood assignments, complaints about "busy-work," and instances of inefficient study habits, but also by the perplexity of both undergraduates and graduates when they are asked to state, in evaluations of teaching, the aims of the courses in which they are enrolled. A study of some hundreds of such evaluations certainly leaves the impression that too often the teaching of English now suffers because objectives are not sufficiently clarified in the mind of the instructor or because there has been some failure in communication. Perhaps the autonomy of the American teacher, the general practice of allowing each to examine upon the materials which he has himself taught, is partially responsible for this unsatisfactory state of affairs. No system of examining yet devised is completely successful, to be sure; but perhaps the more general use of comprehensive or "field examinations," or the wiser employment of external examiners might help to define, for teachers

and students alike, the standards to be met, help to clarify the purposes of instruction, and bring into closer alliance the teacher and the taught. These procedures are more important than they may seem at a first glance. When teacher and student are both judged by the latter's success in an examination, both will make a genuine effort to discover the examiners' expectations and standards and will gain through their association in a joint endeavor.

Whatever the reasons, the example of the professor in the classroom has not proved sufficient of itself to produce pupils who are adequately prepared to teach. Employers give significant evidence on this point. Surveys show conclusively that they are not satisfied that the young men and women whom graduate schools send to them are even reasonably expert; the young men and women themselves testify agreement. Especially in the field of English, where a very large majority of those who pursue graduate studies are destined for the classroom, students complain that they have not been sufficiently inducted into the skills they need when they find themselves at last standing behind the lectern.

That this should be the case is scarcely surprising. The disciplines to which the candidate has been exposed have probably included little or no formal training in the art of teaching; and at the outset he is given precisely that assignment for which he is least ready.

TEACHING COLLEGE ENGLISH

To be sure, if he has had the time, the energy, and the interest, the candidate may have applied himself to reading about the art and practice of teaching. In the extensive literature on the teaching of college English are lively, invigorating books of a general nature, like the well-known volumes by Barzun and Highet and manuals much more utilitarian in purpose.⁷ But learn-

⁷ Jacques Barzun, *Teacher in America* (Boston: Doubleday and Company, 1945); Gilbert Highet, *The Art of Teaching* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1950); Bernice Brown Cronkhite, *A Handbook for College Teachers* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1950); Elmer Ellis, ed., *Toward Better Teaching in College* (Columbia: University of Missouri

ing to teach by reading a book is a little like learning to play tennis or to swim by reading a book. Practice must support principles. For most teachers of English, practice first comes in the college or university course for freshmen.

Freshman English, Communication Skills, or some similar course, has a large place in the economy of almost every English department. In the smaller colleges, where most members of the staff help to teach the course, the annual induction of a few new and untried teachers is relatively easy to handle. In large universities these problems are, however, formidable. For here, most (in some cases, all) of the instruction is offered by assistants or instructors who are inexperienced and who have not been conditioned, by the graduate programs in which they are enrolled or from which they have lately emerged, to regard the assignment as particularly desirable. Indeed the ambition of most young teachers is to escape as quickly as possible from the drudgery of theme reading and numerous conferences and to gain status by being advanced to courses in literature. The difficulties of the situation are often intensified by the reluctance of those who manage the course to regard their tasks as permanently interesting or highly rewarding. Few of them are satisfied to make their careers in this branch of academic life.

Yet the most perfunctory administrator of freshman English will provide his apprentices with at least a few valuable helps. He may plan a syllabus to guide both the young teachers and their students. He may schedule staff meetings where the course requirements are explained, where themes representing different levels of achievement are read, discussed, and graded, and where successful classroom methods are illustrated. He may tell the new teachers how to conduct a conference and how to deal with

Bulletin, 55: 17, *Arts and Science Series*, No. 8, 1954); Wilbert McKeachie and Gregory Kimble, *Teaching Tips* (Ann Arbor, Mich.: 1956; enlarged edition 1961). The issues of *College Composition and Communication* are full of helpful articles, as are the issues of *College English*. See "The College Teaching of English: A Bibliography," compiled by John McKiernan, *et al.*, in *College English*, 19 (October, 1957), 17-26; and the pamphlet published by NCTE in 1957, *The Preparation and Certification of Teachers of English: A Bibliography (1950-1956)*, and the 1963 pamphlet, *Five More Years of Work on the Preparation and Certification of Teachers of English: A Bibliography of Studies for 1957-1961*.

disgruntled students—or their parents. In addition, older staff members—perhaps the head of the department, more often an office mate, sometimes a mentor specifically appointed to assist—may guide the young instructor. This relationship can be, and often is, extremely valuable. The informal discussion of classroom practices, the casual exchange of ideas about assignments, demonstrations of successful conference techniques, counsels as to the proper methods of meeting the problems, personal as well as academic, which freshmen bring to their instructors—give direction and confidence to the beginner. The relationship can be genuinely helpful, of course, only if the mentor is friendly and accessible, and his pupil willing to ask questions, to seek advice, and to follow it. When a really good supervisor is identified, his effectiveness will be increased if his other duties are lightened and he is given the responsibility of guiding five or six younger colleagues. In such circumstances he can organize an informal seminar—similar in purpose to those described later—or otherwise encourage his neophytes to help educate each other.

In practice, there are many modifications of apprenticeship training. For example, a new teacher may, at the beginning of his first year, assist a senior staff member as a reader, help compile reading lists, suggest examination questions, hold conferences with students, and occasionally give a lecture or conduct a class session. In this way he will learn something about objectives, about the practical problems to be met in teaching, about standards of grading, about the difference between helpful and unhelpful comments on essays. Such an arrangement is often possible in literature courses, especially where a senior professor gives lectures which are supplemented by discussion sections assigned to juniors. The senior professor has an excellent opportunity in such cases to teach teachers as well as students—and to learn, through the suggestions and comments of his juniors, about the success of his own efforts. Too frequently this opportunity is overlooked.

Implicit in the last paragraph is the thesis that the candidate should be as well directed in literature as in composition courses. The assumption that an enthusiasm for literature guarantees

that the teacher will be skillful in presenting it is a mistaken one; the beginner, especially if he is given full charge of a section in a course with no supervision, may go sadly astray—partly because of his enthusiasm—and through a desire to demonstrate his abilities as a critic and scholar. Here, too, he will profit by restraint and direction.

In many situations, friendly, purposeful assistance is all that the young teacher requires or all that his department is willing to offer. But in large universities especially, more is needed. A single department or groups of departments can sponsor seminars which give attention not only to the conduct of particular courses but also to important matters relating to the institution and the profession. Such seminars, an excellent opportunity for departments of English and departments of education to join forces, give the student a practical advantage. If the course can be elected under the rubric "Education," it may be applied toward the certification requirements needed by those preparing for junior college work. The departments benefit, too, since a rapprochement between faculties concerned primarily with subject matter and those concerned with methods should produce saner thinking about the training of teachers.⁸

THE INTERNSHIP

Until such cooperation on a large scale is widespread, however, subject matter departments are obliged to provide suitable courses in orientation and methods. The best account of programs set up for these purposes appears in a report on the internships established at eight colleges in 1953 under the sponsorship of the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Its title is

⁸ As discussed in Chapter 4, recent conferences sponsored by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the NEA (beginning with the Second Bowling Green Conference of 1958) have given much attention to the problem of cooperation between schools and departments of education and the departments of liberal arts colleges. Teachers of graduate courses in universities have not shown as much interest. There are signs of hope in the Modern Language Association's changing attitude toward teaching. MLA has lately added to its statement of purposes, "to promote study, criticism, and research in modern languages and their literatures," the words: "and to further the common interests of teachers of these subjects."

Tomorrow's Professors; its author, John S. Diekhoff (now Dean of Cleveland College, Western Reserve University), was co-director of the internship program at Hunter College during its first year.

Dr. Diekhoff treats succinctly and with authority some of the topics touched upon in earlier parts of this chapter. Of particular interest here is his description of the seminar, a part of the internship training at each of the participating institutions. He makes these observations:

The seminars differed from one another from college to college and from year to year in the same college, varying with different emphases, different coordinators, different organization, and different membership. One group or one college might give first priority to "orientation to the institution," another to commitment to the profession, a third to techniques of effective teaching, and a fourth (starting with few preconceptions except the determination to be "permissive" or "unstructured") might choose to follow rather than to guide the interests and activities of the interns. Whatever pattern was chosen, there was general agreement that a seminar for beginning teachers was worth the time and effort, general agreement that it could have been done better, and general disagreement about the ways in which it could have been done better. With some dissenters, members of a seminar in which a good deal of time was devoted to discussing the "history and philosophy of higher education" deplored the failure to attack the "practical" problems the young teacher meets from day to day in the classroom. Members of a seminar in which different methods of presenting different materials were discussed at length—lecture, discussion, demonstration, laboratory, field trips, audiovisual aids, or such special techniques as the presentation of assignments or preparation of examinations—(with some dissenters) deplored the slighting of "more fundamental" questions of philosophy of education. The University of Chicago for one year of the internship sought a concentration of interns in the sciences and devoted much of the attention of the group to the problems of teaching science in a liberal arts college, established a seminar in the subject, and found advantages in the common scientific background and interests of the interns. At the Case Institute of Technology the interns were in the Humanities Division. The general testimony of the other seminars, which included devoted students of the sciences, social sciences, and

humane sciences, finds great advantages in the mixture. But in one seminar of mixed membership, there was a recurrent proposal (vetoed by the coordinator) to break up into separate seminars reflecting the divisions of knowledge.⁹

SEMINAR IN COLLEGE TEACHING

Though the pattern of the seminar varied from place to place, one of the objectives set by each was to give the candidate very practical directions about planning courses, conducting classroom exercises, and giving examinations; another was to acquaint him with the practices of a particular institution and the resources which it provided for the assistance of the teacher; another, to orient him in his profession. The topics treated in the Hunter College Seminar illustrate how these matters were handled: major purposes of a good college teacher, planning a course, levels of instruction, how students learn, methods of class discussion, the effective lecture, essay examinations and objective tests, evaluation of instruction, trends in general education, the curriculum at Hunter, the college teacher as counselor, audiovisual aids in a simple lesson, classroom observation, demonstration class, New York City as a teaching laboratory.¹⁰

Other topics of equal interest might, of course, be added to such a list, e.g., the articulation of high school and college courses; the selection and admission of freshmen; the teacher's part in policy-making; the new media; the teacher and professional societies. Experience shows that for the successful conduct of such a seminar a few points require special attention: (1) the students themselves must share in shaping the syllabus; (2) the leader of the seminar must take full responsibility for coordinating its parts, for a series of disparate subjects discussed by a galaxy of experts, no one of whom knows exactly what the others have in mind, may become disorganized; (3) the course must keep the ideals of utility and applicability, reserving more theoretical matters to the end; and (4) the course must require definite assignments in reports, essays, and examinations of re-

⁹ John S. Diekhoff, *Tomorrow's Professors* (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1959), pp. 15-16.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

spectable graduate grade. One useful exercise is the preparation of a journal or log in which the candidate, if he is actively engaged in teaching (as he should be), outlines in detail his plan for a class hour and later registers his observations concerning the results achieved, criticizing in retrospect his own performance.¹¹

A seminar like this will draw the graduate student's attention to many of the matters mentioned in the first pages of this chapter. With the support which he gains from a concurrent program of supervised teaching, it will strengthen his confidence and his ability to handle classroom problems. It will also accustom him to the idea that both self-evaluation and the appraisals of others are an important part of a teacher's education.

STUDENT APPRAISAL OF TEACHING

The most common (and, unfortunately, the most influential) student appraisals are the comments, both commendatory and derogatory, which students volunteer to department heads or senior professors. In the absence of other judgments, these testimonials are likely to carry undue weight.

An obvious corrective is thought to lie in opinions collected from all the members of a class through filling out a form or questionnaire designed to elicit information on such points as the teacher's personality (e.g., his approachability, interest in students, fairness, willingness to encourage discussion and to consider objections to his views), technical skill (management of the voice, clarity in presenting ideas, use of the blackboard and other aids, definiteness of assignments), and his success in making plain and in realizing the objectives of the course. The current interest in all phases of educational psychology has resulted in very elaborate attempts at such appraisals.¹² Though

¹¹ An interesting description of interdepartmental and interdivisional courses and seminars on college teaching is presented in the report of the project on preparing college teachers of the University of Kentucky and the Southern Regional Education Board. Cf. Albright and Barrows, *Preparing College Teachers*, pp. 38-46.

¹² *The Appraisal of Teaching in Large Universities* (Ann Arbor, 1959) provides a useful survey. See especially the article by H. H. Renner, "On Students' Perceptions of Teachers' Effectiveness," pp. 17-23.

they have had considerable vogue, they are complicated, expensive, and depend for their validity upon a more thoughtful analysis than most students are able, or willing, to supply.

When they have been systematically collected, student opinions should be correlated with grades and other factors. On some points they offer immediate value to the teacher. He may learn, for example, that he has annoying mannerisms or that he is vague in making assignments. Whenever possible, the young teacher should discuss the comments made on his work with an older colleague who may help him sort out the criticisms which matter.

OBSERVATION OF CLASSES

In an institution where supervision is accepted as a genuine obligation, the supervisor, experienced and sympathetic, is likely to make a better evaluation than the student of the teacher's work. If, however, the evaluation is to be competent and to result in useful suggestions for improvement, it must derive, at least in part, from direct observation. The most convenient method of observation is class visiting; but to class visiting, unfortunately, there are widespread, deeply felt, objections.

Members of many professions—the doctor, the lawyer, the actor,—perform in the presence of others and prepare for such performances through apprenticeships in which they submit to direction and correction. But the teacher, though he too displays his talents before an audience, is thought to be different; his classroom is regarded as a sanctuary, the presence of an outsider as an invasion of his privacy, even of his academic freedom.¹³

These objections can scarcely be sustained. Like the intern in surgery, the young teacher learns by observing the technique of others (indeed, until lately this has been his principal means of learning) and by having his own performance criticized by experts. The scholar puts himself on display before a public when he publishes a book; the teacher similarly puts himself on display when he delivers a lecture. The one is no more likely to

¹³ John S. Diekhoff treats this subject in *Tomorrow's Professors*, pp. 39ff.

suffer for his opinions than the other. Since both want to be rewarded for their achievements, both must expect to have their achievements competently judged. Furthermore, a false respect for classroom privacy that carries with it a tolerance for careless or incompetent teaching strengthens the argument for increased reliance upon moving pictures, kinescopes, and television, with their rehearsed and expert presentations.

The media just mentioned may acquaint the young teacher with the idea that teaching performances can profitably be observed and criticized. Moving pictures and kinescopes prepared for the classroom can be viewed, analyzed, and discussed in staff meetings or in seminars. Such demonstrations stimulate the novice by showing him what resourcefulness and ingenuity can accomplish. They may also show him that even seasoned, well-rehearsed lecturers are sometimes guilty of faults in presentation. From participation in a group exercise of this kind, the young teacher may proceed to the appraisal, with his supervisor or with several of his fellows, of a taped recording of one of his own or of a fellow teacher's classes. Closed circuit television may enable him to witness the conduct of a live class and listen to the running comments of a critic teacher.

Such experiences will prepare the candidate for visitors to his own classes, reducing whatever resentment and timidity he may have. Of course, the successful conduct of visiting programs requires tact, skill, and forethought. Visiting can be effective only in a department which can count upon the interest and cooperation of those chosen for the work; a perfunctory or reluctant visitor is worse than none. Moreover, no large scale program should be introduced suddenly. It should be instituted by degrees—first, perhaps, with volunteers, then extended to newly employed teachers, each of whom understands from the outset what is expected of him. The first stress should be less upon evaluation than upon the quick development of skills, the early correction of faults, a concern about good teaching. Once a tradition is established, candidates accept it as a matter of course. To make the situation easier, junior as well as senior staff members may be included in the visiting groups. Good relationships are most easily established if the candidate feels that his work is

not being scrutinized only by a chairman or some other person who immediately controls his future.

A satisfactory visiting program will include these elements: (1) a staff of visitors trained for their task by conferences in which they agree upon aims and procedures; (2) an adequate briefing, for everyone involved, about the plan; (3) an acquaintance, established in the seminars or by private meetings, between the visitors and the person to be visited; (4) the opportunity for the candidate to present, before the visitor attends his class, an outline of what he intends to accomplish; (5) a sufficient number of visits so that the candidate may overcome his initial embarrassment and accept the presence of the visitor in his classroom as a normal occurrence; (6) visits to each teacher, over a period of months, by two or more visitors; (7) a carefully planned pattern for recording the visitors' impressions and suggestions; (8) conferences for a full exchange of views between the visitors and those visited; (9) opportunities for the teacher visited to attend the classes of his visitors and of other staff members who have shown a special talent for teaching.

So elaborate a scheme as that just outlined is not needed, of course, in small colleges, where a large degree of intimacy and of informal give-and-take is possible. Something like it is necessary in the large colleges and universities—especially the latter, where thousands of undergraduates are given over, each year, to the ministrations of eager and intelligent, but largely untrained, instructors. Statistics show that in some of the publicly supported institutions as many as 60 per cent of all freshmen and sophomores are taught by graduate students—teaching fellows and teaching assistants. Since predictions concerning the immediate future indicate that this percentage will rise, complaints about the inferior quality of undergraduate teaching undoubtedly will rise, too. The only remedy is more emphasis upon programs for teacher training.

GENERAL SUMMARY

Formidable obstacles to the widespread introduction of such plans as are described here are certain. One obvious problem is

expense. To start an effective internship program for twenty-five instructors and teaching fellows with a seminar, supervisor, and visitors, the cost will be considerable. However, teaching thus directed is generally paid for at the lowest rates and now subsidizes graduate teaching, at much higher rates. Improved undergraduate preparation might well reduce the costs of graduate instruction. Moreover, training for teaching is essential in the candidate's preparation. Finally, poor teaching is in the end expensive, whatever the salaries paid.

Further, the demand for better college teaching is likely to stimulate proposals for certification which English departments will not approve. The new teaching devices receive most favorable reception in situations where live teaching has failed to demonstrate its obvious superiority. The low opinion of teaching degrees (e.g., the Ed.D.) held in most colleges and universities indicates that there is, as yet, little confidence that schools of education can produce suitably trained teachers for academic departments. If, then, departments of English think that college teaching is important, they must accept the obligation for providing a more thorough discipline in the art than they have attempted in the past. Upon such efforts depends, to a considerable degree, the future of humane education in the United States; for English is the stronghold of the humanities.

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